ABSTRACT

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A STUDY OF THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER EQUITY VALUES AND TEACHER CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

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The purpose of this research was to study the equity values of principals and teachers and to determine if there existed a relationship between values reported by teachers and principals and behaviors demonstrated by teachers in the classroom. Further, the study investigated the relationship between teacher perception of principal equity and teacher equity performance in the classroom. Additionally, the study investigated whether teacher classroom equity behaviors were different for African American, white, female, and male students.

The sample for the study consisted of 18 junior high and secondary English and mathematics teachers, 12 principals matched with the 18 teachers, and 360 students selected from a summer school program located in a large metropolitan school system.

Principals and teachers completed a questionnaire assessing their equity values. Trained observers assessed teacher equity behaviors of response opportunities, praise, and proximity in the classroom.

Correlational statistical analyses of the data were conducted to determine relationships between perceptions and values. ANOVA statistical analyses of the data were conducted to determine teacher equity behaviors toward students of different races and gender.

Findings indicated that teachers and principals in the study reported similar high equity values; however, when teachers were matched with their own principals, there were few significant relationships among teacher- and principal-reported values and teacher-observed behavior. Teacher interactions with students revealed inequities in treatment of male, female, African American, and white students; white male students received more positive interactions and African American females received fewer total interactions. Rating themselves on the questionnaire, teachers reported high student expectations; however, the classroom observation data, a much stronger indicator of teaching behavior, did not substantiate teacher-reported equity values.

The results of this study suggest a need for equity training for principals and teachers as well as for investigation of teacher interaction with female and African American students.

A STUDY OF THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER EQUITY VALUES AND TEACHER BEHAVIORS IN THE CLASSROOM

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades, a major shift in emphasis on the criteria of educational quality has occurred. The A Nation at Risk report (1983) marked a watershed in the concern for school quality and school improvement. The finding of that national study indicated that the kinds of input characteristics which had been the major focus in earlier years were not significantly associated with the basic academic outcomes in students. School facilities and the paper qualifications of teachers were not significantly associated with student achievement in reading, mathematics, and other academic skills. This finding that school material inputs made minimal differences in school achievement led to a major shift in the criteria of educational quality from inputs to student outcomes (Gordon, Schneider and Fisher 1988).

Another finding of the report, and researchers like Rist (1970), Apple (1983), Dusek (1985), and Irvine (1990), was the discrepancy in student achievement between the children of the affluent social strata and the children of the poor and racial minorities. Early studies demonstrated that differences in educational programs, particularly in secondary schools, were highly associated with differences in socioeconomic status of the families from which students came. Subsequent research has repeatedly demonstrated that the level of basic educational achievement is highly

associated with the socioeconomic and racial or ethnic background of students. The research was a catalyst for further study on the nature of effective teaching and on school characteristics that affect outcomes for students. Researchers have now focused their attention on examining what happens in the school and in the classroom rather than on examining the nature of the facilities and the expenditures for education. The new issue in education is related to how to improve teaching and how to improve the nature of the school learning environment in order to provide high-level outcomes for all children. The improvement of schools has, therefore, increasingly shifted from an emphasis on identification of individual student differences and school input characteristics to an examination of the social conditions and processes involved in the teaching/learning school climate process (Brookover 1985).

Students' school achievement has previously been presumed to be a function of family background and differences in ability. The current emphasis on effective schools has shifted the focus to the nature of the school-learning environment, the teaching-learning process, and teaching behavior in the classroom. The criteria of effective schools have become the level of the student achievement and the equity in student outcomes. The new school improvement movement focuses on the improvement in student outcomes rather than inputs into the school (Brookover et.al. 1982).

The correlates of effective schools have been variously identified, and their classification varies from study to study. Drawing on other research, Brookover

(1983) and his associates classified the characteristics of schools that are correlated with the level of student achievement in three categories. The first characteristic is the ideology of the school, the characteristic beliefs, expectations, evaluations, and feelings about the students in the school. The second characteristic is the organizations in the school, including teacher and student role definitions, student grouping patterns, principal's leadership, and related aspects of the organization. The third characteristic is the instructional practices of the school, including the identification of objectives, the type of instructional programs and related instructional practices.

The late Ronald Edmonds (1986) identified the correlates of effective school outcomes in five general categories: first, principal leadership and attention to the quality of instruction; second, pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus; third, an orderly and safe climate conducive to teaching and learning; fourth, teacher behaviors that convey the expectations that all students are expected to attain at least minimal mastery; and fifth, the use of measures of pupil achievement for program evaluation.

According to Brookover (1985, 257-286), the effective schools movement might be summarized in the following manner:

> First, it is characterized by the belief that schools can teach essentially all students, rich or poor, to high levels of performance. This is confirmed by the fact that some schools do a successful job.
>
> Second, it focuses reform attention on the schools as the basic unit for improvement. The emphasis is on the school learning-teaching environment rather than on inputs into the school.

> Third, schools change; some have already demonstrated that significant improvement in outcomes is possible.
>
> Fourth, a school administrator can make his or her school effective in teaching all students if he or she is willing to risk some objections by associates who insist that present schools are adequate or that other routes to improvement are better.

Studies suggested that instructional contacts differed, not only for highs and lows and for African American and white students, but also for male and female students. Research reported on gender and race during the past decades has identified disparity in the classroom and has demonstrated a relationship to academic achievement. Findings related to the following:

- Teachers provided more opportunities for male students to respond in class than for female students to respond (Good, Sikes and Brophy 1973).
- The quality of feedback to students differed for male and female students (Good and Brophy 1987).

As today's schools become more culturally integrated, school systems find themselves facing challenging equity issues. While the issues are widespread, the controversy is not. The controversy is centered around one major question, "How can the American ideal of equity of education for all students be realized?" The question of equity is especially perplexing when coupled with the fact that schools are staffed with teachers whose values and perspectives mediate and interact with what they teach and influence the way messages are communicated and perceived by their students (Banks 1986). Much of what is considered appropriate or desirable classroom behavior is inductively learned by teachers and pupils as they routinely

interact with others over time. For example, teachers come from homes and earlier school experiences to their jobs with a set of learned predispositions about what "real knowledge" is and about what "promising" students should already know and how they should behave. These internalized predispositions are represented in teacher expectations of students. The ethos of the school site further wields its effect on teachers' dispositions about appropriate standards. Principals and other teachers play a dominate role in setting the tone for what is "appropriate" to expect from particular students. During classroom lessons, teachers tend to make higher evaluations and give greater pedagogic commitment to those students whose academic and social behavior is closest to the classroom standard and rules maintained by the teacher (Clark 1983). Educational equity then becomes more than a resource and facilities issue; it becomes an instructional issue and a school climate concern. Since the school administrator is the instructional leader in the school social system, the administrator's role must be one of responsiveness. Educational administrators must be capable of identifying the needs of the school, acting upon the needs accordingly, and modeling equity in his/her interactions with students and staff. The administrator should recognize the human diversity reflected in the school population and the needs of students and staff when making curricular, structural, or policy decisions (Baptist 1980).

The school administrator is responsible for setting the tone of the school, making the key decisions, leading the instructional staff in becoming aware of contributions of other cultures, and modeling diversity acceptance. In order to

perform these tasks effectively, the principal must know what the instructional offerings are, how to motivate teachers, and how to nurture all students (including male, female, African American and white) so that they become fulfilled, self-actualizing individuals. The principal is the equity agent who develops an atmosphere of trust and caring for students and staff. The equity principal, then, is the school leader whose behavior and interactions model equal opportunity for all students and teachers. The equity principal conveys high expectations for achievement and success. He/She ensures that all teachers believe that access to educational/professional development is available to all students and teachers equally, regardless of race and gender.

Purpose of the Study

It was the purpose of this research to study the relationship of reported equity values of teachers and their administrators, to study the relationship of principal and teacher equity values to teacher-observed behaviors in the classroom, and to study teacher behaviors toward African American male and female students and white male and female students.

Implications of this research can serve as valuable information for focusing on attaining equity in relation to explicit process and outcome goals. This research is valuable to school leaders because it can assist educators in incorporating equity policies and activities such as using equity criteria when selecting instructional

materials and tests or including equity standards/criteria in teacher/administrator professional training and performance assessment.

This research investigates equity in the school and in the classroom. Equity is defined as equal access of all children to educational opportunities. It focuses on the distribution of important learning conditions in schools and educational outcomes of students by race, gender, and socioeconomic status. The goals of the study were to present research that would compare educational administrators' equity values to their teachers' equity behaviors (referred to throughout the study as teacher-observed behavior) in the classroom, to compare administrators' self-reporting values to teachers' perception of administrators' values and to compare teachers' self-reporting values to teachers' observed behaviors toward students. Further, the study was intended to investigate the classroom behaviors of teachers as they interacted with African American male and female students and white male and female students.

Background of the Problem

According to school system demographic reports (Tucker 1991), the county in this study is a large metropolitan county that grew from 77,000 to 450,000 residents between 1950 and 1986. This growth proceeded in a racially-skewed fashion. African American residents moved primarily to the southern area of the county and white residents moved primarily to the northern area of the county. Between 1970 and 1980 the non-white population in the northern area of the county increased 102-

percent to 15,365. The non-white population in the southern area of the county increased 661-percent to 87,583. In addition, between 1975 and 1980, 37,000 white residents moved from the southern area of the county to neighboring counties.

The county's demographic changes affected the school system. Between 1976-1986, the school system's elementary school population declined 15 percent. During the same time, however, African American elementary student enrollment increased 86 percent. At the high school level, the school system's enrollment declined 16 percent while black enrollment increased 119 percent.

In 1969, the district court entered an order that abolished the system's freedom of choice plan, enjoined the system from discriminating on the basis of race, and required the system to eliminate the vestiges of its dual system. The court further ordered the system to close all remaining de jure black schools and to establish a neighborhood school attendance policy. The system closed all de jure black schools (Pitts vs. Freeman 1989).

The case remained inactive until 1975, when the plaintiffs charged that the system violated the 1969 plan. In 1976, the court ordered the school system to modify its Minority-to-Majority program (M-to-M program) that permitted students to transfer from schools in which their race was a majority to schools in which their race was a minority, by providing students with free transportation and to reassign faculty and staff members to approximate systemwide racial percentages. The Fifth Circuit Court held that "principals, teachers, teacher-aides, and other staff who work directly with children at school shall be so assigned that in no case will the racial

composition of a staff indicate that a school is intended for black students or white students (Pitts vs. Freeman 1989)."

The system has since appealed the ruling and has sought unitary status (Pitts vs Freeman 1989). A school system is defined as unitary when it no longer discriminates against school children on the basis of race. The metropolitan county currently has a population of 540,000 and anticipates growth to more than 630,000 by the year 2000. Minority students are now heavily enrolled in the schools and the minority population continues to grow. There is growing recognition of the cultural changes and there are instructional and staff development programs being implemented to respond to the changing demographics of the school system. Freeman 1989).

Statement of the Problem

The study investigated equity values of principals and teachers and classroom behaviors of teachers. Components of the problem were whether there existed a significant difference in what principals reported their equity values to be and what teachers perceived principals' equity values to be, whether there existed a significant relationship between the equity values of principals and the values of their teachers, and whether there was a significant relationship between principals' equity values and teachers' classroom behaviors. Additional components were whether there existed a significant relationship between teachers' values and their perception of their principals' values, whether there existed a relationship between teacher equity values

and teacher classroom behaviors, and whether there existed a significant relationship between teacher perceptions of their administrator equity values and teacher classroom behaviors. The study also investigated whether there were differences in teacher classroom behaviors toward students of different races and gender.

Significance of the Study

Though a number of studies have been conducted to determine the effects of teacher behavior toward and teacher expectations of students of different socioeconomic and ability groups, less research has been conducted to investigate the relationship of teacher expectation to teacher behavior in ethnic and gender groups and few or no studies have been conducted to determine the relationship of the principal's values in the school and the teachers' behaviors in the classroom.

This study is intended to extend the research on teacher expectation of students to principal expectation of school, thereby, providing valuable research that can be used to analyze equity values that administrators in effective school settings demonstrate.

Instrumentation used to measure teacher classroom behavior was the TESA-Observation Coding Form. Teacher equity values were measured by the Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior scale (Grayson and Martin 1990). Principal equity values were measured by the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior scale (Grayson 1988).

Research Questions

This study investigated the following questions:

1. Was there a significant relationship between the general values of principals and teacher perception of principal general values?
2. Was there was a significant relationship between principal student-specific values and teacher perceptions of principal student-specific behavior?
3. Was there a significant relationship between the equity values of principals and teacher perceptions of principal equity values?
4. Was there a significant relationship between the general values of principals and teachers?
5. Was there a significant relationship between principal student-specific values and teacher student-specific values?
6. Was there a significant relationship between principal and teacher equity values?
7. Was there a significant relationship between principal equity values and teacher-observed behaviors?
8. Was there a significant relationship between teacher general values and their perceptions of principal general values?
9. Was there a significant relationship between teacher student-specific values and teacher perceptions of principal student-specific values?
10. Was there a significant relationship between teacher perception of principal equity values and of their own equity values?

11. Was there a significant relationship between teacher general values and teacher-observed behavior?
12. Was there a significant relationship between teacher student-specific values and teacher-observed behavior?
13. Was there a significant relationship between teacher perception of principal general values and teacher-observed behavior?
14. Was there a significant relationship between teacher perception of principal student-specific values and teacher-observed behavior?
15. Was there a significant difference in the frequency of teacher positive response opportunities for African American and white students?
16. Was there a significant difference in the frequency of teacher negative response opportunities for African American and white students?
17. Was there a significant difference in the frequency of teacher positive response opportunities for female and male students?
18. Was there a significant difference in the frequency of teacher negative response opportunities for female and male students?
19. Was there a significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher positive praise for African American and white students?
20. Was there a significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher negative praise for African American and white students?
21. Was there a significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher positive praise for female and male students?

22. Was there a significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher negative praise for female and male students?

23. Was there a significant difference between teacher positive proximity for African American and white students?

24. Was there a significant difference between teacher negative proximity for African American and white students?

25. Was there a significant difference between teacher positive proximity for female and male students?

26. Was there a significant difference between teacher negative proximity for female and male students?

27. Was there a significant difference in teacher-observed equity behaviors toward African American and white students?

28. Was there a significant difference in teacher-observed equity behavior toward female and male students?

Summary

This chapter gives a historical and research-based perspective of the educational challenge to achieve gender and race equity. It delineates the purposes of the study, specifies the behaviors expected of equity principals, lists instruments to be used to evaluate equity values of teachers and administrators, identifies the instrument to be used to evaluate teacher behaviors, explains the significance of the study, and states the research questions.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews literature related to the study. Each topic reviews literature relevant to the hypothesis presented in the study.

Teacher Expectation

Teacher expectation is a controversial issue when related to the education of African American children. A series of studies examined what has been called the "Pygmalion Effect," a term applied to broadly analogical events in which the subjects have a directing hand in producing responses based on expectations. The question is, "Do students tend to fulfill expectations that teachers have for them, whether positive or negative?" Numerous research studies, many of which were conducted in the 1970s and 1980s, were carried out to evaluate the notion of teacher influence on student achievement. The literature is replete with much reinterpretation of the research studies; most studies were based on the landmark work of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968).

Rosenthal and Jacobson's, Pygmalion in the Classroom (1968), represented an attempt to provide empirical justification for a truism considered self-evident by many educators: school achievement is not simply a matter of a child's native ability, but involves external variables as well. Rosenthal and Jacobson's work took place

in a lower-class elementary school. In a study reported by Irvine (1990), Rosenthal and Jacobson at the beginning of the year administered the Flanagan's Test of General Ability (TOGA) to eighteen students in the first through sixth grades. Teachers were told that such a test would, with high predictive reliability, sort out those students who gave indication of being intellectual "spurters" or "bloomers" during the following academic year. The teachers were given lists with the names of their students. They were told that these students scored in the top twenty percent of the school on the test even though no factual basis for such determination existed. A twenty percent subsample of the "special" students was selected for intensive analysis. Testing of the students at the end of the school year offered some evidence that these selected students did perform better than other students (Rosenthal and Jacobson 1968).

The Rosenthal and Jacobson experiment was the first of many studies of teacher expectation effects. Despite the controversy surrounding Rosenthal and Jacobson's first documentation of teacher expectancy effects, most researchers acknowledge that teacher expectations for their students' performance can indeed influence the students' subsequent academic performance. One of the most consistently cited behaviors manifested by teachers is the amount of instructional time devoted to students based on differential expectations (Hall and Merkel 1985; Good 1981; Brattesani, Weinstein and Marshall 1984). Bouie (1985) concluded that teacher expectation had a significant influence on student academic engaged time (time-on-task). In his study Bouie found that teacher expectation correlated

significantly with many of the measures of academic engaged time including total number of process questions asked. Students who were identified as high academic achievers received more instructional-related interaction than did those identified as low academic achievers. In addition, those students in the high expectation group received more process questions which not only required higher levels of cognitive functions to answer, but also were more likely to be discussed further with the teacher. Students classified as high academic achievers by the teachers were also more likely to receive unsolicited help from the teacher during seatwork and in turn voluntarily asked questions of the teacher during seatwork.

Also, Bouie found that students classified as low academic achievers experienced more discipline-related interactions than instructional-related interactions. These findings were true for both inquiry sessions between the students and the teachers and during seatwork. Likewise, students for whom teachers held high expectations received significantly more interactions in questioning, sustained feedback, reinstruction, and individualized instruction primarily during seatwork than did students for whom teachers held low expectations.

Other researchers found that the quality of interaction with students for whom teachers held high expectations differed from the interaction with students for whom teachers held low expectations. Murphy (1988) stated that less interactive teaching occurred in classes in which teachers held low expectations of students. He further stated that teacher-student interactions were often replaced with worksheet activities.

National concern for equity has provided the impetus for research which

examines teacher-student interaction for the most salient of student characteristics–race and gender. Irvine (1985) found that for the race variable, black students received more negative behavioral feedback and more positive-negative feedback than did white students. For the gender variable, females received significantly less total communication, less praise, less negative behavior feedback, less neutral procedure feedback, and less nonacademic feedback. The significant race/gender interactions emphasized the white female's infrequent communications with teachers. She received significantly less total communication than did the other three gender/race groups (African American males, white males, African American females). In addition, white females received less neutral behavioral feedback and less academic feedback than did white males.

A review of research studies of teacher communication patterns as related to student race logically categorized studies as experimental studies, naturalistic setting and teacher perception (Irvine 1985).

The relevance of the finding of differential communications of race and gender is that these verbal and nonverbal messages communicate teacher expectations and evaluations of student performance. Researchers observed teachers' verbal and nonverbal behaviors for the independent variables of student race, student gender, and teacher gender. The results indicated that white teachers directed more verbal praise, criticism and nonverbal praise toward males than toward females. In contrast, white teachers directed more nonverbal criticism to African American males than toward African American females, white females, or white males (Irvine 1986).

Irvine's research confirms the findings of Aaron and Powell (1982). They concluded that black pupils receive more negative academic and behavioral feedback than white pupils. The communication process operates both overtly and covertly as an effective condition of subsequent student behaviors and attitudes, often referred to as the "pygmalion effect" or a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Researchers have concluded that teachers treat children in accordance with teachers' differential expectation. These expectations are evidenced by communication to students who in turn react to their being treated differently by the teacher. The teacher then exhibits those behaviors which reinforce the teacher's expectations (Irvine 1985).

The expectations for student success held by teachers and communicated to students are potentially important influences on classroom interaction. In a study conducted at Ohio State (1988), a majority of the student teachers expressed belief in the school staff's ability to make a difference in the academic achievement of minority students. Nine-tenths (92%) stated that an important fact for promoting high achievement among any group of students is the teacher's belief that the children can learn. Nearly eight in ten (77%) expressed the opinion that a teacher/ counselor who believes minority students to be poor scholars will soon have the students acting like poor scholars. Two-thirds (65%) thought that changing the attitudes of professional staff would improve the learning rate of minority students, and 70% believed that teachers neglect minority students when teachers do not teach these students what they teach others.

Although seldom recognized or publicly admitted, teachers do favor some students and treat them preferentially in their classrooms, and students are aware of teachers' partial behaviors (Weinstein 1985).

With what kind of student do teachers prefer to teach and interact? Kedar-Voivodas's review (1983) of the works of Brophy and Evertson (1981), Brophy and Good (1974), Silberman (1969), and Willis and Brophy (1974) provides some insight into the student characteristics that influence teacher-student interactions. Each of these researchers asked teachers to nominate one child from their classes to each of the following categories:

(a) attachment: students whom teachers would choose to keep another year for the sheer joy of it

(b) rejection: students whom teachers would be relieved to have moved from their classes, if the class size would be reduced

(c) indifference: students whom teachers feel least prepared to talk about if the students' parents dropped in unannounced for a conference and,

(d) concern: students whom teachers feel a good deal of concern for and to whom they would like to devote all their attention, if they could.

Attachment students were bright, academically talented students who were obedient and cooperative and did not cause trouble in the classroom. Their contacts, both self- and teacher-initiated, were academic rather than procedural. Rejected student were the exact opposite of attachment students. They ignored the rules and were defiant, belligerent, and aggressive with teachers and their peers. Their

interactions with teachers were disciplinary in nature, that is, interactions in which the teachers criticized these students' behaviors. Although perceived to be low achievers, the rejected students were actually no different from other students in academic achievement. Indifferent students were seldom noticed, often ignored and forgotten, passive, and described by teachers as unattractive and introverted. Concerned students had learning problems, but because they behaved appropriately, teachers were eager to assist them. Unlike the rejected students, concerned students were academically inferior to their peers. Although very little research has been done on how race affects the students' nomination into these categories, Brophy and Evertson (1981) reported that girls in the indifferent and the concerned groups were more likely to be nonwhite and that boys in the rejection group were more likely to be nonwhite. Dusek and Joseph (1985) found that teachers preferred physically attractive, white, middle-class students and had higher expectations for students who were well-behaved, controlled, obedient, and attentive. Teachers are influenced by information in students' cumulative folder such as comments of previous teachers, family background information, and photographs.

Students who have healthy self-images, high self-expectations and internal as opposed to external locus of control, students who dismiss teachers as insignificant others in their lives; and students who are intellectually able, active, salient, and persistent are able to mediate negative teacher expectations and attitudes. African American children, however, have difficulty mediating teachers' negative expectations because they cannot alter their race, class, family background, perceptions of their

skin color as unattractive, the behavior of their siblings, and their often unusual names. Discrimination has also limited African American children's development of a healthy sense of self, high expectations, and inner-directed orientations (Irvine 1990).

All of the research confirms that the emotional climate or teacher warmth is regarded as one of the most important variables mediating expectancy effects, and climate plays an equally crucial role in student achievement and self-concept in nonexpectancy situations. One of the most often referenced studies is the Brophy and Good Model (1974), which states that teachers form differential expectations for student performance and that consistent with these differential expectations, teachers behave differently toward different students. Their differential behavior communicates to each student something about how the student is expected to behave in the classroom and perform on academic tasks. The researchers theorized that if teacher treatment is consistent over time and if students do not actively resist or change it, the treatment will likely affect the student's self-concept, achievement motivation, level of aspiration, classroom conduct, and interactions with the teacher. These effects generally complement and reinforce the teacher's expectations, so that students conform to these expectations more than they might otherwise. Ultimately, the expectations make a difference in student achievement and other outcomes, indicating that teacher expectations can function as self-fulfilling prophecies.

Rosenthal (Cooper 1985, 135-58) developed the following four-factor theory of teacher expectation:

1. Climate: Teachers should create warm socioemotional relationships with students. Teachers more often create these types of climates with their brighter students.

2. Feedback: Teachers should provide feedback to students about their performance. Teachers tend to praise high-expectation students and criticize low-expectation students.

3. Input: Teachers should teach quantitatively more material and qualitatively more challenging material. Students perceived as low-expectation receive fewer opportunities to learn and are taught less difficult material.

4. Output: Teachers should give students more opportunities to respond and ask questions. Teachers give preferential treatment by giving high-expectation students more clues, longer response times, and more repeats, redirects, and rephrases.

The four-factor theory of the mediation of teacher expectancy effects holds that teachers communicate their high expectations to students in part by creating a warm socioemotional climate, particularly through the use of positive nonverbal cues (Harris, Rosenthal, Snodgrass 1986).

Landmark and recent studies clearly reveal that there is a relationship between what teachers expect and what students produce. Much of the expectancy research is based on teachers' perceptions of students as high achievers or as low achievers. Kerman, Kimbrall, Martin (1980) conducted research on the connection between teacher expectation and teacher behavior toward perceived low achievers, ethnic minorities, and children from low socio-economic levels of society. The basic premise was the well-known self-fulfilling prophecy which states that teacher behavior toward children for whom low expectations are held tends to be expressive of that

low expectation and increases the probability that the expectation will be fulfilled and that the child's educational opportunities will be curtailed.

In the research of Kerman, Kimbrall, and Martin, nearly 20,000 students were observed from 1974 through 1979. Perceived low achievers were 60.8% males and 39.2% females; perceived high achievers were 46% males and 54% females. Whites comprised 52.8% of the "lows," with 29.2% browns, 14.95 blacks, and 3.1% others; the "highs" were 58.3% whites, 23.2% browns. 12.6% blacks, and 5.9% others. The diversity of students held for grade level as well as for gender and ethnicity. There was a parallel diversity among teachers during the years across all dimensions: gender, ethnicity, age, and years of experience.

Researchers found that most teachers called on students perceived as high achievers to recite or perform more frequently than they called on students perceived as low achievers and that teachers gave preferential treatment to "gifted" students, with African Americans being treated less positively than whites. Researchers also found that teachers were not only less apt to call on "lows," but also they were less apt to react to "low" students' responses. The findings revealed that teachers also spent more time working with students perceived as high.

Based on their findings, Kerman, Kimbrall and Martin identified fifteen teacher behaviors that convey teacher expectations for students. The interactions are classified in three strands – Response Opportunities, Feedback and Personal Regard. The interactions are delineated in Figure 1.

	STRAND A Response Opportunities		STRAND B Feedback		STRAND C Personal Regard
1.	Equitable Distribution	1.	Affirm/ Correct	1.	Proximity
2.	Individual Help	2.	Praise	2.	Courtesy
3.	Latency	3.	Reasons for Praise	3.	Personal Interest and Compliments
4.	Delving	4.	Listening	4.	Touching
5.	Higher Level Questions	5.	Accepting Feeling	5.	Desist

Figure 1. Teacher Expectation and Student Achievement Strands

Some teacher traits and characteristics that researchers have noted as influential in mediating teacher expectations include the following: ability to deal constructively with failure, willingness to take personal responsibility for student progress, beliefs about achievement and the nature of intelligence tests, perception about personal control over students, rigidity/flexibility of their expectations, general intelligence, cognitive complexity, locus of control, sense of efficacy, cognitive style, tolerance for ambiguity, degree of prejudice and discriminatory behavior, coping and

defense mechanisms, degree of dogmatism, beliefs about the role of teachers (Jussim 1986).

Principal Effectiveness

There is common agreement in the literature that effective schools have effective leaders, usually principals who exhibit traits and behaviors that are different from ineffective principals. Although leadership theory and research have long posited that there is no systematic relationship between personal traits and leadership (Jago 1982; Owens 1987), it now appears that all the trait research is not to be discounted (Mazzarella 1981) and that constellations or clusters of traits rather than a single characteristic do correlate with leadership.

In effective schools that serve at-risk populations, principals have remarkable social and interpersonal skills that facilitate their working with a variety of people. They are more often extroverted than introverted, preferring face-to-face contact with students, teachers, and parents and verbal exchanges instead of written ones. They are skilled communicators who vary their language and style of presentation to fit the audience and the situation. The audiences of these principals include such diverse groups as teachers, business people, parents, policy-makers, and community and church members (Irvine 1990).

Like the teachers in the classroom, effective principals are energetic, active and highly visible to students and teachers. They seem clear about goals and directions; they are secure enough about themselves and their goals that they are

unthreatened by challenges or situations of high ambiguity and uncertainty, conditions that are prevalent in schools that serve black students. When well-conceived plans falter or unforeseen variables emerge, these principals enthusiastically rally their staffs for renewed planning. They are attentive to the need to maintain and develop a strong school morale and healthy climate and often rely on their visionary leadership, optimism, and missionary zeal in unstable and uncertain circumstances. They ignore imposed bureaucratic rules and regulations that are incompatible with their schools' needs and goals (Mazzarella 1981).

Recent research on high schools has also focused on the "principal as leader" (Boyer 1983; Lightfoot 1983; Coleman, Hoffer, and Kilgore 1982; Sizer 1984). These studies have found that the role of the principal as a leader is critical in creating school conditions that lead to higher student academic performance-conditions such as setting high standards and goals, planning and coordinating with staff, having an orientation toward innovation, frequent monitoring of staff and student performance, and involving parents and the community.

Tartt (1986) investigated the role of the principal in establishing an effective school. In her study the principals' responsibility was to provide the instructional leadership necessary for developing their schools' improvement plans based on the leadership training and the assessment data results. Tartt found that the characteristics affected most during the first year of implementation of effective schools were leadership, time-on-task, monitoring student progress, and goals.

Pellicer (1990) investigated effective leadership using a sample of 74 principals and their schools. Schools were taken from the pool of trained assessors in NASSP's Assessment Center Program. Data were collected from all 74 schools and were used in choosing schools for site visits. Eight schools were selected for visits. Each school was visited for three days by two researchers, who interviewed school administrators, teachers, and parents on the questions, "How are administrative teams organized and how do they solve problems and make decisions?" "What is the administrative team's definition of instructional leadership and how is it put into operation?" "How does the administrative team achieve optimum productivity and satisfaction in the school?" The school principals in the study were classified into two groups – "A" if they were rated above average and "B" if they were rated average in these skills. He found that the team's ability to function effectively was shaped by the position, power or prestige of the principal. Effective principals established expectations and implemented clear decision-making procedures. The most successful schools had strong and creative principals who set the agenda for success. Findings in the study showed instructional leadership to be a shared responsibility. Instructional leaders took risks to bring about innovation. School climate was perceived as more positive in schools that had an effective principal and administrative team.

Heck and others (1990) tested the causal relationship between selected instructional leadership behaviors of the principal and student achievement. They investigated governance, instructional organization, and school climate domains.

The study established that specific factors that the principal can manipulate at the school level affect school/student achievement.

Heck and others (1990) also stated that in the domain of governance, principals in high-achieving schools involve teachers to a much greater extent in instructional decision making. In the domain of instructional organization, principals worked to develop school goals consistent with district goals, helped teachers acquire needed instructional resources, observed how instructional strategies were transformed into learning activities and provided follow-up feedback to help teachers improve. Principal behaviors that influenced student achievement were creating high expectations for academic achievement and behavior and establishing a system of reward for achieving the expectations, communicating school goals to everyone, encouraging formal and informal discussion for instructional strategies, reporting the school's achievement to the community, and expending efforts to maintain faculty enthusiasm and morale.

Deal and Peterson (1990) studied the success of school reform to the concepts of school culture and symbolic leadership with case studies of school leaders in five different schools that had been successful in reshaping their school's culture.
The researchers found that the principals in all five schools in the study exhibited common characteristics: they believed in developing a strong sense of what the school should be, selecting staff whose values fit well with their principals' values and school values, facing conflict and building school unity through the resolution of disputes, using his/her own behavior and actions to exemplify core values and beliefs,

reinforcing those values and beliefs through daily routines, telling stories that reinforce those values and beliefs through daily routines, and caring for and continuing those traditions, ceremonies, rituals, and symbols that reflect and reinforce the school's culture.

Perceptions

Since research on effective schools has identified the principal as the key communicator of goals and visions and as creator of the school climate for achievement, several researchers have studied how teacher perceptions of principal leadership have had an impact on the school. Smith and Andrews (1989) hypothesized that teachers are the best judges of the effectiveness of the principal's instructional leadership. Drawing on the literature and on their study of 1,200 school principals, Smith and Andrews devised a school-based supervision and evaluation model that supervisors of school principals could use to assess principals. Areas studied were the following: Resource Provider: The principal marshals personal, building district, and community resources to achieve a vision and goals of the school; Communicator: The principal articulates a vision of the school that heads everyone in the same direction; Visible Presence: The principal's presence is felt throughout the school as the keeper of the vision and constantly displays behavior that reinforces school values. They found that principals who were perceived by their teachers to be strong instructional leaders exhibited significantly greater gain scores in achievement in reading and mathematics than did schools operated by average and

weak instructional leaders. Principals perceived as strong instructional leaders spent their time quite differently from the group of average principals. Average principals spent the greatest amount of time on school management and operations, the dimensions of the job which they valued least. Strong instructional leaders organized their day to focus their time and attention on instructional matters rather than on routine matters of running the school.

Andrews, Soder and Jacoby (1986) also studied whether there existed a relationship between perceptions of the principal as an instructional leader and student achievement and whether there was a significant relationship between the principal's leadership and other climate variables in a school. The researchers studied 33 elementary schools between 1982 and 1985. A total of 3,515 students were included in the data analysis. In each school at least ten students were in each of the four subgroups (white, African American, free lunch, and non-free lunch) on which data were disaggregated. Academic achievement was indicated by gains on the California Achievement Tests. Teacher perceptions of the principal were obtained through administration of the Staff Assessment Questionnaire which measured strong leadership, staff dedication, staff expectations of students, identification of learning difficulties, multicultural education, gender equity, curriculum continuity, learning climate, and frequency of monitoring student progress. They found that students in schools with strong instructional leaders showed significantly greater scores for both reading and mathematics than students with weak instructional leaders. In schools administered by weak principals, two groups of students actually lost ground in

mathematics; they regressed in achievement. In reading, very little gain occurred in these schools. They also found that principal's leadership is significantly related to six of the other eight factors on the School Assessment Questionnaire. The variables most highly related to strong leadership were those identified by Edmonds (1986) in his effective schools research. Their research found that the correlation for gender equity was significant at the .01 level, and the correlation for early identification was significant at the .05 level.

Blase (1987) investigated the question, How are teachers affected over time by the principal's leadership?" He studied teacher perceptions of principal effectiveness. All of the teachers in the study worked at one urban, multi-racial high school with a student population of about 1500. All of the teachers had served with principals elsewhere as well. Initially, interviews, observations, and questionnaires were given to 80 teachers. Blase's theory was that teachers' perceptions of their work were significantly influenced by the principal's leadership. The researcher used open-ended questioning, rather than a hypothesis. In the final staff sample, 40 teachers were interviewed three times for a total of 400 hours. The researcher found that teachers' comments included statements such as "works hard and long hours, is seen everywhere," "proactive," "involved," "reasonable recognition of needs and problems of teachers, parents, students, programs, departments," and "face-to-face interactions with faculty and individual teachers."

Further, Blase (1989) investigated the strategies that teachers employ in interacting with principals whom they themselves perceive as effective. The

researcher used an open-ended instrument, the Inventory of Teacher Influence Strategies (ITIS), to solicit subjective data from teachers. The ITIS included measures of teachers' perceptions of their principal's openness, the effectiveness of the principals, and the effectiveness of the various political strategies that teachers used with principals. Of the 770 teachers in a variety of schools and school districts who completed the survey, 404 identified their principals as open and effective.

Teachers reported that open principals communicated their expectations clearly and efficiently. Principals were accessible to teachers which increased interaction with the principal, maintaining high visibility in their schools and classrooms. Closed principals were characterized as ineffective, authoritarian, inaccessible and nonsupportive.

Strategies that teachers reported using with open principals included the following: diplomacy - presenting oneself as a professional who is straight-forward and honest; limiting disclosure of negative attitudes and thoughts when dealing with their principal; conformity with principals' expectations; visibility of students' best work; minimizing requests to principals for assistance in matters related to student discipline; ingratiation such as praise, showed sympathy, and flattery.

Summary

In summary, teachers are significant others in their students' lives; as significant others, they affect the achievement and self-concept of their students, particularly African American students. Because schools are loosely coupled systems and teachers frequently operate autonomously and independently, teachers' impact

on the lives of students is great (Irvine 1990). Perceptions often create the climate for school success. Teachers' perceptions of students, principals' perceptions of what equity includes and teachers' perceptions of principals' equity values are critical components of expectations that teachers hold for students.

Research findings reviewed in this study have substantiated that teacher expectations, educators' perceptions and principals' leadership are critical components to ensuring equity treatment of students from different cultural background. Findings indicate students for whom teachers hold low expectations tend to perform in accordance to the teachers' expectations. Further, research states that expectations are set based on a number of variables ranging from teachers' backgrounds and teachers' perceptions of what their school leaders value, model or require of teachers.

It is the school administrator's responsibility to ensure that teacher impact is positive and fair to all cultures of students, even beyond ethnicity. The school administrator should through his/her own actions and behaviors model high expectations and equity for all students.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study investigated the relationships and differences among the following variables: principal self-reporting equity values, teachers' perceptions of principals' equity values, teachers' self-reporting equity values, teachers' observed equity behaviors, quality and quantity of teacher praise for African American and white male and female students, positive and negative proximity interactions with African American and white male and female students, and the frequency of response opportunities for African American and white male and female students. Figure 2 illustrates the design of the study. An emphasis was placed on the leadership of the principal in setting the climate for equity of opportunity in the school and the role of the teacher in creating a climate for equity of opportunity in the classroom. It was theorized that there was a significant relationship between principal equity values and teacher equity values and equity behaviors.

Research reviewed supports the belief that principals set the climate for the school and that teacher expectations affect student performance. It was proposed that the tone for establishing high expectations began with principals who modeled high expectations and equality for faculty members and for students. However, there was limited research to link principal values to teacher behaviors in the classroom.

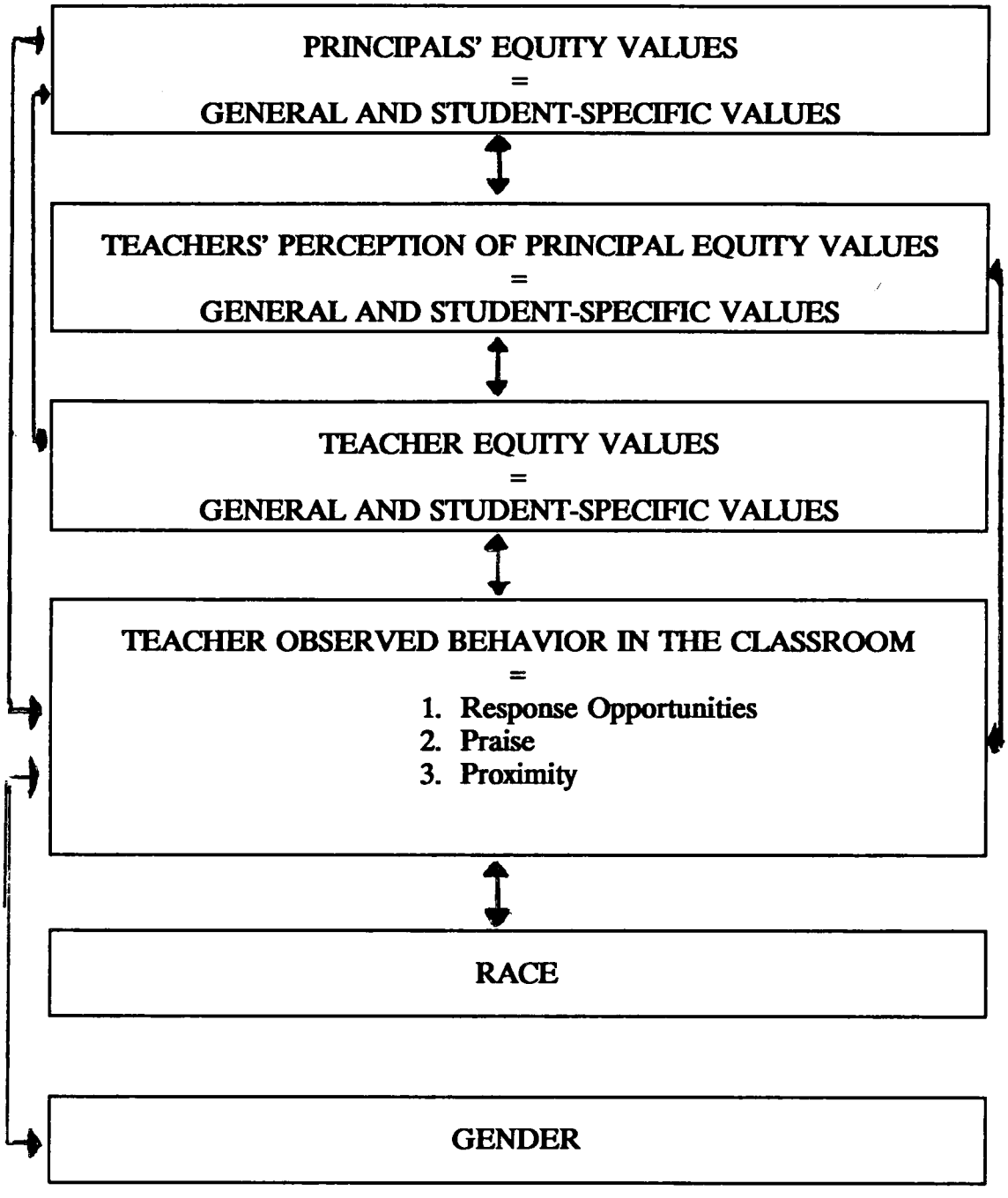


Figure 2. Relationship Among Reported Equity Values and Observed Teacher Behavior

This study was based on the premise that a direct relationship exists between teacher perception of principal equity values and teacher equity behaviors in the classroom. It was theorized that each of the other intervening variables contributed to teacher equity behaviors in the classroom.

Subjects in the study were teachers employed for a summer school program. Teachers in the summer school program are expected to maintain the same level of teaching instruction that they are required to maintain during the regular school year. Because of the heterogeneous mixture of the students in summer school classes, teachers are expected to use interactive teaching strategies that will facilitate individualized and group instruction so that all students are provided equal access to learning.

Students in the study were predominantly students who had failed one or more content subjects during the school year or students who wanted to graduate from high school in fewer than twelve years. Student subjects were observed during their regular summer school class period without any disruption of class time.

Principal subjects were those who were the administrators of the summer school teachers the previous school year. Principal subjects did not supervise teachers during the summer school program. It was hypothesized that even though principal subjects did not supervise teachers during the school year that the long-term affect of the principals' equity leadership would be present even when the principal was not directly supervising the teacher.

Summer school principals are expected to be instructional leaders in the program. Because of the multicultural and multiethnic composition of the student body, summer school principals are expected to monitor instruction and supervise teachers to ensure quality instruction and equitable teaching behaviors. These summer school principals were not included in the study because they only supervised teachers for the six-week summer program. The researcher theorized that because the summer school principal did not formally evaluate teachers and because the principals only supervised teachers for a short period of time that there would be no significant relationship between the equity values of summer school principals and summer school teachers.

Instruments used in the study were the TESA Observation Coding Form to assess teacher equity behaviors, the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior scale to assess principals' equity values and the Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior scale to assess teachers' equity values. Items on the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior scale and items on the Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior scale were closely correlated and measured the same equity values. Principals rated their own equity values, and teachers rated not only their own equity values, but also their perceptions of their principals' equity values. Observers used the TESA Observation Coding Form to record equity teaching behaviors.

A comparative analysis of the results of the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior scores and the Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased

Behavior scores was used to determine the relationship of the principal's equity values and their teachers' equity values. A comparative analysis was also used to determine the relationship between teacher self-reported equity values and teacher-observed equity behaviors. ANOVA analyses were used to determine the difference between principal-reported equity values and teacher perceptions of principal equity values.

Definitions of the Variables

Independent Variables

Gender — Gender refers to whether the student subjects were male or female.

Race — Race refers to whether the student subjects were African American or white.

Teacher and Principal General Values — This variable identifies self-reported values that are general beliefs that principals and teachers have and model. Categories include attitude about equality, nonbiased language, generalizations about gender and race, facts about different cultures, comparisons of groups, equal attention to teachers and students of different racial groups and sexes, freedom of expression of values, modeling non-biased behavior, and promoting a wide range of career choices to different racial groups and both sexes.

Teacher and Principal Student-specific Values — This variable identifies self-reported values that are specific to the kinds of exchanges that principals have

with teachers and students in the school and the kinds of exchanges that teachers have with students in the classroom. Categories include recommending school activities to different cultural groups, equal academic expectation for all students, acceptance of different groups to express emotions, requiring students of all races and sexes to treat each other as equals, and equal behavioral expectation of student discipline for all students.

Teacher/Principal Equity Values This variable identifies self-reported values that represent principal and teacher general values and student-specific values as measured by the Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior scale and the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior scale.

Response Opportunities This variable refers to teachers' equitable distribution of learning opportunities for all students to participate in learning activities. Positive response is any specific opportunity provided or permitted by the teacher for a pupil to respond to a question, recite, read aloud, express an opinion, give a report, etc. Negative response is any action by the teacher that prohibits a student from responding or performing. If a teacher fails to call on a student who wishes to respond and in fairness should be given the opportunity to respond, a negative code is given. If a teacher scolds a student for calling out an answer, a negative is coded also.

Praise This variable refers to teachers' enthusiasm and acceptance of students' responses and behavior. Positive praise goes beyond mere acceptance to express pleasure in the student's performance of activities related to class objectives. Negative praise is scored when a teacher criticizes a student's performance in a sarcastic or demeaning manner using either verbal or nonverbal feedback.

Proximity This variable refers to teacher closeness to students. Positive proximity refers to whether a teacher is within arm's reach of students. Negative proximity refers to whether a teacher avoids closeness to students.

Teacher-observed Behavior This variable refers to the teacher's total interaction (response opportunities, praise, and proximity) with students in the classroom.

Dependent Variables

The output variable was teacher-observed behaviors. The measure of impact (dependent variable) of the independent variables was teacher-observed behavior with African American and white, male, and female students in the classroom.

Null Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses investigated the relationship of equity values of principals and teachers and classroom behaviors of teachers.

H1: There is no significant relationship between the general values of principals and teacher perceptions of principal general values as measured by the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior scale (ASEEB) and the Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior scale (TSENB).

H2: There is no significant relationship between principal student-specific values and teacher perception of principal student-specific values as measured by the ASEEB scale and the TSENB scale.

H3: There is no significant relationship between the equity values scores of principals and teachers on perception of principal equity values measured by the ASEEB and the TSENB scales.

H4: There is no significant relationship between the general values of principals and teachers as measured by the ASEEB and the TSENB scales.

H5: There is no significant relationship between principal student-specific values and teacher student-specific values as measured by the ASEEB and the TSENB scales.

H6: There is no significant relationship between principal equity values scores and teacher equity values scores as measured by the ASEEB and the TSENB scales.

H7: There is no significant relationship between principal equity values scores and teacher-observed behaviors in the classroom as measured by the ASEEB scale and the TESA Observation Coding scale.

H8: There is no significant relationship between teacher general values and their perceptions of principal general values as measured by TSENB.

H9: There is no significant relationship between teacher student-specific values and teacher perceptions of principal student-specific values as measured by the TSENB scale.

H10: There is no significant relationship between teacher perception of principal equity values and teacher-reported equity values as measured by the TSENB scale.

H11: There is no significant relationship between teacher general values and teacher-observed behavior in the classroom.

H12: There is no significant relationship between teacher student-specific values and teacher-observed behavior in the classroom as measured by the TSENB scale and the TESA coding form.

H13: There is no significant relationship between teacher perception of principal general values and teacher-observed behaviors as measured by TSENB scale and the TESA coding form.

H14: There is no significant relationship between teacher perception of principal student-specific values and teacher-observed behaviors in the classroom as measured by the TSENB scale and the TESA coding form.

H15: There is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher positive response opportunities for African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H16: There is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher negative response opportunities for African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H17: There is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher positive response opportunities for female and male students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H18: There is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher negative response opportunities statements for female and male students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H19: There is no significant difference in the positive quantity and quality of teacher positive praise to African American and white students.

H20: There is no significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher negative praise for African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H21: There is no significant difference in the positive quantity and quality of teacher positive praise to female and male students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H22: There is no significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher negative praise to female and male students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H23: There is no significant difference in teacher positive proximity for African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H24: There is no significant difference in teacher negative proximity for African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H25: There is no significant difference in teacher positive proximity for female and male students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H26: There is no significant difference in teacher negative proximity for female and male students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H27: There is no significant difference in teacher-observed equity behaviors toward African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding form.

H28: There is no significant difference in teacher-observed equity behaviors toward female and male students as measured by the TESA coding form.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of the study included the following.

1. The study contained a small sample of subjects. The findings and the study could serve as a foundation for a broader study in a regular school setting.
2. Teachers in the study were observed in a summer program away from their regularly assigned school. The researcher theorized that if the principal had an impact on the teachers that the impact would be present even if the teacher were not with the principal for a short period of time (during the summer).

3. Respondents may not have been completely honest when answering the questions. The researcher attempted to balance this effect by having the teachers assess the principals and having data collectors observe teachers.
4. Teachers in the summer program tended to stay closer to their desks, to give more paper assignments and move around the room less than they would during the regular year. Therefore, there were few teacher interactions in the classroom.
5. More teachers were used in the sample than principals due to the fact that the principals had to be matched with teachers selected for the study.

Summary

This chapter provided the theoretical and conceptual framework for the study. The independent and dependent variables and terms were defined and the null hypotheses were stated. The next chapter explains the methodology used to conduct the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if there existed a significant relationship between reported equity values of teachers and their administrators in order that the relationship between principal equity values and teacher equity values to teacher-observed behaviors in the classroom, as well as study teacher behaviors toward African American, white, male, and female students in the classroom might be examined. To achieve this goal, educational administrators were asked to complete the Administrator's Self- Evaluation of Equitable Behavior scale and teachers were asked to complete the Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior scale. The administrators rated themselves on equity values on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "almost always" to "rarely." The administrators' teachers rated the principals using the same questions and the same scale. Teachers also rated themselves on equity values on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "almost always" to "rarely." Teachers' equity behaviors were evaluated using the TESA-Observation Coding Form.

Description of the Setting

The study was conducted in a large, suburban, metropolitan school district. The socioeconomic status of the students in the system range from upper middle class to lower class. The average income is $40,466, ranking the system as one of the highest in the metropolitan area and exceeding the Georgia average as well as the average of the seven-state Southeast and the nation. There are seventy-six elementary schools, nineteen high schools, six junior highs and eighteen special units with 9,360 staff members (5,600 full-time and 3,760 auxiliary). More than 73,000 students enrolled in the school system for the 1991-92 school year.

The demographics have changed dramatically in the last two decades from a predominantly white population to an increasing minority population with African American students being the largest identifiable minority population. The system has recently adopted a multicultural policy to promote equity in the schools.

The sample used in this study was representative of the junior and senior high schools. Almost half (twelve) of the 26 junior and senior high schools were represented in the study. The study consisted of educators from ten high schools and two junior high schools.

Sampling Procedure

Subjects in the study included eighteen mathematics and English summer school teachers, their twelve principals from the previous school year, 181 African American students including 86 female and 95 male students and 179 white students

including 89 females and 90 male students who were observed during summer school classes.

The sample was determined by identifying English and mathematics teachers who taught a minimum of two courses in summer school. All English and mathematics teachers who taught two or more courses in summer school were included in the study.

Teacher subjects were teachers who had taught in the school system at least one school year, had applied for summer school employment, and had been recommended by their principals as teachers who could perform well in a summer school program with students from across the school system. Teachers in the study represented both male and female and African American and white teachers. The majority of the teachers who applied for summer employment were African American teachers.

Principals used in the study were teachers' principals from the previous school year. The principals had worked with the teachers at least one full school year and had recommended the teachers for employment in the summer program.

Students used in the study were ten students per teacher per class period. The ten students were balanced for race (African American and white) and for gender. Many of the students in the summer school program enrolled because they had failed one or more courses during the regular school year. Other students in the program enrolled because they wanted to accumulate credits for early graduation from high school.

Data Collection

The methods of collecting data in this study were self-rating scales and observation of teaching behaviors. Self-rating scales required that teachers evaluate their equity beliefs and that administrators evaluate their own equity beliefs. The rating scales were also used by teachers to rate their perception of their principals. In an effort to ensure that responses on the rating scale were balanced, principal self-perceptions of equity values were matched with teacher perceptions of principal equity values, and teacher self-perception of equity values were matched with observer rating of teacher equity behaviors.

Observational data collecting was greatly enhanced by the Teacher Expectation and Student Achievement interaction analysis system. Process variables were measured through the interaction of students and teachers and are defined in the study as the actual behaviors which were demonstrated by teachers and students in a classroom situation. In the original use of the TESA Observation Coding Form, observers were directed to observe teachers' behavior toward students identified by the classroom teacher as either high or low achieving. The researcher in this study directed observers to focus on teacher behaviors directed toward African American, white, male, and female students.

Observation of teacher interactions with students is a viable method for gathering data to assess teaching behaviors. However, ensuring that evaluation of teaching interactions is accurate requires that observers be consistent during their observations. In order to ensure consistency, observers were trained in observation

techniques and were placed in reasonable conditions. Conditions of the observation were that observers had only a small sample (ten students) to observe in each class. Most targeted students were a mixture of five students who were African American males and females and five students who were white males and females. Observers also had only three interactions (response opportunity, praise and proximity) to observe while in the classroom. A third condition which helped to reduce observer error was that observers were required to observe each class for fifteen minutes only.

Observers in the study were systemwide administrators who were identified by the Staff Development Department as having been trained in the Teacher Expectation Student Achievement (TESA) program which utilizes the TESA Observation Coding Form. Observers had forty-five hours of training including twenty hours of workshop sessions, ten hours of observation time, ten hours of observing time, three hours of pre- and post- workshop sessions and two hours of reading and discussing time. The observers for the study were selected because they demonstrated high interrater reliability and because part of their regular-school year job responsibility is to observe teachers throughout the school year. Teacher subjects and student subjects were accustomed to observations during the regular school year since all teachers were observed several times as a part of their state assessment. Individuals and groups being observed in the study adapted to the observers' presence and tended to ignore the observers' presence in the classroom. Neither the teachers nor the students were aware of the study; both teachers and students believed that the observers were assessing teaching that related to instructional

concerns rather than equity behaviors, thus, reducing the possibility of the "Hawthorne Effect."

Observers in the study were asked to enter the classroom and observe ten target students in each class observed (five white male and female students and five African American male and female students). Trainers observed only the interactions among the teacher and the ten target students.

Data collectors went into the classrooms and sat in unobtrusive positions. Upon arrival in each classroom, the observers waited to familiarize themselves with the "target" students before they began coding. They then identified the target students by placing the African American students on the top half and the white students on the bottom half of the TESA Observation Coding Form. The observers recorded on the form the date, the course being observed, the teacher observed, the time period of the observation, and their (observers') initials. The observers placed tally marks after each student's name, according to the positive or negative nature of the interaction, in the spaces above or below the dashed line (P = positive, larger/upper area; N = negative, smaller/lower area).

Observers were instructed to spend fifteen minutes in each class and to be consistent from classroom to classroom as to duration of visit and interpretation of interactions in order to enhance reliability.

Description of the Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study -- an abbreviated form of the Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior questionnaire for teachers and an abbreviated form of the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior questionnaire. The observation instrument used was the TESA-Observation Coding Form. Questionnaires were divided into two categories-- general and student-specific values. Equity values was a composite of the two subcategories.

The Teacher's Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior questionnaire was piloted in 1983-84 in five Los Angeles County school districts. Several instruments were used to obtain information from the pilot participants and to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. A preliminary teacher questionnaire and student data form were completed by each participant providing client information. A pre- and post- Teacher's Self-Evaluation questionnaire was administered and a pre- and post-attitude survey was administered by the teachers to their students. The observation data collected by the teachers served as part of the process or formative evaluation. Standardized test scores in reading and mathematics (CTBS) were used to determine whether target students in the classes taught by teachers participating in GESA achieved higher gains than a comparison group, for the product or summative evaluation. Recording of students was by gender and ethnicity. Achievement scores were recorded on target students pre-selected by the teacher. Interactions with all students were recorded for frequency distribution. The reactions and ideas of the participating teachers and their students enriched and shaped the project. During the

1984-85 school year, pilot teachers who completed the three-day facilitator workshop replicated Gender/Ethnic Expectations and Student Achievement (GESA) in additional school districts and conducted several facilitator workshops. Field testing of the Gender/Ethnic Expectation and Student Achievement (GESA) program of which the instrument is a component was completed July 1985. Widespread use of the instrument as part of the GESA training has occurred throughout the country since 1985 (Grayson and Martin 1990). No further validation was required for this study.

The Equity Principal program of which the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior questionnaire is a component was originally developed with fifty administrators from twenty school districts in Southern California. A total of one hundred principals from each of the following locales participated in the first round of field testing: North Carolina, New York, Wisconsin, and Washington/Oregon. Additional field tests were conducted with principals from Montana and Los Angeles County. The original program was piloted between December 1985 and February 1986. The first round of field testing occurred between August-October 1986 and the second rounds were conducted between November 1986 and April 1987 (Grayson 1988). Also in May 1990, selected administrators in the school system investigated in the study used the instrument as a part of a staff development program offered to provide principals with an awareness of the need for administrators' equity leadership. No further validation was needed for this study.

Teacher Expectation Student Achievement Observation Coding Form was field-tested for three years. The field test was funded by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title III. The program/instrument was originally called Equal Opportunity in the Classroom Project. During the final year of field testing, 7,740 students were involved. The 1973-74 National Validation Report observation data are presented in Figure 3.

MEAN FREQUENCIES OF INTERACTIONS PER OBSERVATION PERIOD

	*Early Training Lows N=431	Post Training Lows N=431
Strand A		
Response Opportunities	0.40	2.60
Strand B		
Praise	0.35	1.10
Strand C		
Proximity	1.0	2.0

Figure 3. National Validation Report

The educational significance of the teacher performance data was substantiated by student gains and any question of alternative explanations of the student gains was effectively squelched by the teacher performance data. No further validation was needed.

Summary

This chapter describes the methods and procedures used in the study including the educational setting of the study, the study sample, instrumentation, data collection procedures and statistical applications.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter presents statistical data and discussion related to the findings of the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3. The findings of the study reveal a number of significant relationships. Each finding is discussed in terms of its relationship to the hypothesis presented in the Theoretical Framework. The findings in this study are reported in terms of general values (teacher and principal self-reported scores), student-specific values (teacher and principal self-reported scores), equity values (teacher and principal ratings of their general and student-specific values), perceptions (teacher rating of principals) and teacher-observed behaviors in the classroom which include positive and negative response opportunities, positive and negative praise, and positive and negative proximity). The data were analyzed by using ANOVA and the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. The level of significance for each hypothesis was set at the .05 level of significance. Data analysis for each hypothesis is discussed.

H1: There is no significant relationship between principal general values and teacher perceptions of principal general values as measured by the Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior scale (ASEEB) and the Teacher's Self-Evaluation Non-Biased Behavior scale (TSENB). The Pearson

Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .0345 at the .428 level of significance. The hypothesis is accepted which means that the teacher scores on perceptions of principal general values were independent of the principal general values. TABLE 1 shows that both groups had high mean scores – on a five-point scale principal mean score was 4.3 and teacher mean perception score was 4.6; however, the teacher scores were not related to principal individual score, but rather to principal group score.

TABLE 1

PEARSON CORRELATION OF PRINCIPAL-REPORTED AND TEACHER-PERCEIVED PRINCIPAL GENERAL VALUES

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TPRINGEN	18	4.6	.35	.0345	.428
PGENERAL	12	4.3	.85		

TPRINGEN= Teacher Perception of Principal General Values
PGENERAL= Principal General Values

H2: There is no significant relationship between principal student-specific values and teacher perception of the principal student-specific values as measured

by the ASEEB scale and the TSENB scale. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .1866 at the .162 level of significance. The hypothesis is accepted which means that teacher perceptions of principal student-specific values were independent of principal student-specific values. TABLE 2 shows that both groups had high mean scores – on a five-point scale principal mean score was 4.9 and teacher mean perception score was 4.7; however, teacher scores were not related to individual principal scores, but rather to principal group score.

TABLE 2

PEARSON CORRELATION OF PRINCIPAL-REPORTED AND TEACHER-PERCEIVED PRINCIPAL STUDENT-SPECIFIC VALUES

				Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient	
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TPPSSPEC	18	4.7	.28	.1866	.162
PSSPECIF	12	4.9	.28		

TPPSSPEC= Teacher Perception of Principal Student-specific Values
PSSPECIF= Principal Student-specific Values

H3. There is no significant relationship between the equity values scores of principals and teachers on perceptions of principal equity values as measured

by the ASEEB and the TSENB scales. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .1027 at the .259 level of significance. The hypothesis is accepted which means that teacher perceptions of principal equity values scores were independent of principal equity values scores. TABLE 3 shows that both groups had high mean scores; on a five-point scale principal mean score was 4.6 and teacher mean perception score was 4.7; however, the teacher scores were not related to individual principal scores, but rather to principal score as an independent group.

TABLE 3

PEARSON CORRELATION OF PRINCIPAL-REPORTED AND TEACHER-PERCEIVED EQUITY VALUES OF PRINCIPALS

	Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient				
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TPPEQV	18	4.7	.28	.1027	.259
PEQV	12	4.6	.52		

PEQV= Principal-reported Equity Values
TPPEQV= Teacher-Perceived Equity Values of Principals

H4: There is no significant relationship between the general values of principals and teachers as measured by the ASEEB and the TSENB scales. The

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .2104 at the .132 level of significance. The hypothesis is accepted which means that teacher-rated general values were not related to individual principal-rated general values. TABLE 4 shows that both groups had high mean scores – on a five-point scale principal mean score was 4.3 and teacher mean score was 4.6; however, teacher scores were not related to individual principal scores, but rather to principal group score.

TABLE 4

PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEACHER-REPORTED AND PRINCIPAL-REPORTED GENERAL VALUES

	Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient				
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TGENERAL	18	4.6	.37	.2104	.132
PGENERAL	12	4.3	.85		

TGENERAL= Teacher-reported General Values
PGENERAL= Principal-reported General Values

H5: There is no significant relationship between principal student-specific values and teacher student-specific scores as measured by the ASEEB and the TSENB scales. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of -.0200 at the .458 level of significance. The null hypothesis is

accepted which means that teacher scores on student-specific values were independent of principal scores on student-specific values.

TABLE 5 shows that both groups had high mean scores -- on a five point scale teacher mean score was 4.8 and principal mean score was 4.9; however, teacher scores were not related to individual principal score, but rather to principal group score.

TABLE 5

PEARSON CORRELATION OF PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER-REPORTED STUDENT-SPECIFIC VALUES

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TSSPECIF	18	4.8	.36	-.0200	.458
PSSPECIF	12	4.9	.28		
TSSPECIF	Teacher-reported Student-specific Values				
PSSPECIF	Principal-reported Student-specific Values				

H6: There is no significant relationship between principal equity values scores and teacher equity values scores as measured by the ASEEB and the TSENB scales. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .2184 at the .123 level of significance. The hypothesis is accepted

which means that teacher scores of values were independent of principal scores of values. TABLE 6 shows that both groups had high mean scores – on a five-point scale principal mean score was 4.7 and teacher mean score was 4.6; however, the teacher scores were not related to individual principals scores, but rather to principal group score.

TABLE 6

PEARSON CORRELATION OF PRINCIPAL-REPORTED AND TEACHER-REPORTED EQUITY VALUES

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TEQV	18	4.7	.24	.2184	.123
PEQV	12	4.6	.52		

TEQV= Teacher Equity Values
PEQV= Principal Equity Values

H7: There is no significant relationship between principal equity values scores and teacher-observed behaviors in the classroom as measured by ASEEB and the TESA Observation Coding form. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of -.0628 at the .371 level of significance. The hypothesis is accepted which means that principals reported high equity

values, but their teachers did not demonstrate high equity teaching behaviors in the classroom. TABLE 7 shows that both groups had high mean scores; however, the scores were not related to individual principal scores. Rather they were related to principal group score.

TABLE 7

PEARSON CORRELATION OF PRINCIPAL-REPORTED EQUITY VALUES AND TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TOBEHAVE	18	3.3	5.09	-.0628	.371
PEQV	12	4.6	.52		

TOBEHAVE= Teacher-observed Behavior in the Classroom
PEQV= Principal Equity Values

H8. There is no significant relationship between teacher general values and teacher perception of principal general values as measured by TSENB. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of -.0487 at the .399 level of significance. The hypothesis is accepted which means that teacher-reported general value was independent of teacher-perceived general values of principals. TABLE 8 shows that both teacher-reported mean score

of 4.6 and teacher-perceived mean score of 4.6 were high; however, the scores were not related. Teachers who reported high general values were not always the same teachers who perceived their principals to have high general values.

TABLE 8

PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEACHER-REPORTED GENERAL VALUES AND TEACHER-PERCEIVED GENERAL VALUES OF PRINCIPAL

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coeffficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TGENERAL	18	4.6	.39	-.0487	.399
TPRINGEN	18	4.6	.35		

TGENERAL= Teacher-reported General Values
TPRINGEN= Teacher-perceived General Values of Principal

H9: There is no significant relationship between teacher student-specific values and teacher perceptions of principal student-specific values as measured by the TSENB scale. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .6665 at the .000 level of significance. The hypothesis is rejected which means that there is a significant relationship between teachers who report having high student-specific values and teachers who perceive their principals as having high student-specific values. In TABLE 9

the mean score for teacher-reported student-specific values was 4.8 and principal-perceived student-specific values was 4.7.

TABLE 9

PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEACHER-REPORTED STUDENT-SPECIFIC VALUES AND TEACHER-PERCEIVED PRINCIPAL STUDENT-SPECIFIC VALUES

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TSSPECIF	18	4.8	.36	.6665	.000
TPPSSPECIF	18	4.7	.28		

TSSPECIF= Teacher-reported Student-specific Values
TPPSSPECIF= Teacher-perceived Student-specific Values of Principal

H10: There is no significant relationship between teacher-perceived principal equity values scores and teacher-reported equity values scores as measured by the TSENB scale. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .4783 at the .004 level of significance. The hypothesis is rejected which means that the teachers who reported having high equity values also perceived their principals as having high equity values. TABLE 10 indicates this finding.

TABLE 10

PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEACHER EQUITY VALUES AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF PRINCIPAL EQUITY VALUES

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TEQV	18	4.7	.24	.4783	.004
TPPEQV	18	4.7	.28		

TEQV= Teacher-reported Equity Values
TPPEQV= Teacher Perception of Principal Equity Values

H11: There is no significant relationship between teacher general values and teacher-observed behavior in the classroom. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .0781 at the .341 level or significance. The hypothesis is accepted which means that there is no relationship between teachers who reported high general values and teachers who demonstrated equity behaviors in the classroom. TABLE 11 indicates this finding.

TABLE 11

PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEACHER-REPORTED GENERAL VALUES AND TEACHER-OBSERVED GENERAL VALUES

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TGENERAL	18	4.6	.37	.0781	.341
TOBEHAVE	18	3.3	5.09		

TGENERAL Teacher-reported General Values
TOBEHAVE Teacher-observed Behavior

H12: There is no significant relationship between teacher-reported student-specific values and teacher-observed behavior in the classroom as measured by the TSENB scale and TESA coding form. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of -.1952 at the .151 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, accepted. TABLE 12 shows that there is no relationship between teacher student-specific values and teacher-observed behavior.

TABLE 12

PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEACHER-REPORTED STUDENT-SPECIFIC VALUES AND TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIORS

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient					
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TSSPECIF	18	4.8	.36	-.1952	.151
TOBEHAVE	18	3.3	5.09		

TSSPECIF Teacher Student Specific values
TOBEHAVE Teacher-Observed Behavior in the Classroom

H13: There is no significant relationship between teacher perception of principal general values and teacher-observed behaviors as measured by the TSENB scale and TESA coding form. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .2444 at the .096 level or significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, accepted. TABLE 13 shows that there is no significant relationship between teacher perception of principal general values and teacher-observed behaviors in the classroom.

TABLE 13

PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEACHER-PERCEIVED GENERAL VALUES OF PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM

	Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient				
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TPRIGEN	18	4.6	.35	.2444	.096
TOBEHAVE	360	3.3	5.0		

TPRIGEN= Teacher Perception of Principal General Values
TESA= Teacher-observed Behavior in the Classroom

H14: There is no significant relationship between teacher perception of principal student-specific values and teacher-observed behaviors (TESA) in the classroom as measured by TSENB scale and TESA coding scale. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded an r value of .0796 at the .338 level or significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, accepted. TABLE 14 shows that there is no significant relationship between teacher perception of principal student-specific values and teacher-observed equity behaviors in the classroom.

TABLE 14

PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL STUDENT-SPECIFIC VALUES AND TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR

	Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient				
Factor	N	X	SD	r	Probability
TPPSSPEC	18	4.7	.28	.0796	.338
TOBEHAVE	18	3.3	5.09		

TPPSSPEC= Teacher Perception of Principal Student-specific Values
TOBEHAVE= Teacher-observed Behavior

H15: There is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher positive response opportunities for African American and white students as measured TESA coding scale. The findings in TABLE 15 indicate that African American students have a mean score of 1.69 positive response opportunities and white students have a mean score of 2.24. TABLE 16 shows that the Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 5.263 at the 0.022 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, rejected which means that there is a significant difference in the frequency of teacher positive response opportunities statements for African American and white students. Teachers tended to provide positive response opportunities for white students more than they provided response opportunities for African American students.

TABLE 15

MEAN POSITIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES

AND RACE

Variable	N	Mean
African American	181	1.69
Whites	179	2.24

TABLE 16

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR POSITIVE RESPONSE

OPPORTUNITIES AND RACE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Race	27.186	1	27.186	5.263	.022
Residual	1849.344	358	5.166		
Total	1876.531	359	5.227		

H16: There is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher negative response opportunities for African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 4.538 at the 0.034 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, rejected. TABLE

17 indicates that the negative response opportunities mean score for African American students is 1.03 and the mean score for white students is 1.00. TABLE 18 shows that there is a significant difference in the frequency of teacher negative response opportunities statements for African and white students. Negative response opportunities were used more when teachers interacted with African American students than when teachers interacted with white students.

TABLE 17

MEAN FOR NEGATIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND RACE

Variable	N	Mean
African American	181	1.03
White	179	1.00

TABLE 18

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NEGATIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND RACE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Race	0.099	1	0.099	4.538	.034
Residual	7.801	358	0.022		
Total	7.900	359			

H17: There is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher positive response opportunities for female and male students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 15.114 at the 0.000 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, rejected. TABLE 19 indicates that the mean score for female students is 1.49 and for male students is 2.41 which means that teachers provide more positive response opportunities for males than for females. TABLE 20 shows that there is a significant difference in the frequency of teacher positive response opportunities statements for male and female students.

TABLE 19

MEAN FOR POSITIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND GENDER

Variable	N	Mean
Females	175	1.49
Males	185	2.41

TABLE 20

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR POSITIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND GENDER

Source of Variation	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Gender	76.015	1	76.015	15.114	0.000
Residual	1800.516	358	5.029		
Total	1876.531	359			

H18: There is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher negative response opportunities statements for female and male students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 1.861 at the 0.173 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, accepted. TABLE 21 indicates that the frequency of criticism by gender was not significant which means that teachers tended to direct negative responses to male and female students equally. TABLE 22 shows that there is no significant difference in the frequency of teacher negative response opportunities statements for male and female students.

TABLE 21

MEAN FOR NEGATIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND GENDER

Variable	N	Mean
Female	175	1.01
Male	185	1.01

TABLE 22

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NEGATIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Gender	0.041	1	0.041	1.861	0.173
Residual	7.859	358	0.22		
Total	7.900	359			

H19: There is no significant difference in the positive quantity and quality of teacher positive praise to African American and white students. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 2.303 at the 0.130 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, accepted. TABLE 23 shows that African American students (1.51) received less positive praise than white students (1.79). TABLE 24 indicates that there is no significant difference in the positive

quantity and quality of teacher praise to African American and white students. Teachers tended to give positive praise to African American and white students equally.

TABLE 23

MEAN FOR QUANTITY AND QUALITY OF POSITIVE PRAISE AND RACE

Variable	N	Mean
African American	181	1.51
White	179	1.79

TABLE 24

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR POSITIVE PRAISE AND RACE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Race	6.752	1	6.752	2.303	0.130
Residual	1049.148	358	2.931		
Total	1055.900	359			

H20: There is no significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher negative praise for African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 4.100 at the

0.044 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, rejected. TABLE 25 shows that the mean score for negative praise score for African American students was 1.13 and the mean score for white student was 1.04. TABLE 26 shows that there is a significant difference in the negative quantity and quality of teacher praise to African American and white students. Since the difference is significant, the results mean that teachers tended to direct more negative praise to African American students than to white students.

TABLE 25

MEAN FOR QUANTITY AND QUALITY OF NEGATIVE PRAISE AND RACE

Variable	N	Mean
African American	181	1.13
White	179	1.04

TABLE 26

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NEGATIVE PRAISE AND RACE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Race	0.696	1	0.696	4.100	0.044
Residual	60.804	358	0.170		
Total	61.500	359			

H21: There is no significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher positive praise to female and male students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 11.669 at the 0.001 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, rejected. TABLE 27 indicates that the mean score for female students was 1.34 and for male students was 1.95. TABLE 28 shows that there is a significant difference in the positive quantity and quality of teacher praise to male and female students. Male students received significantly more positive praise than female students.

TABLE 27

MEAN FOR QUANTITY AND QUALITY OF POSITIVE PRAISE AND GENDER

Variable	N	Mean
Female	175	1.34
Male	185	1.95

TABLE 28

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR POSITIVE PRAISE ON THE TEACHER EXPECTATION AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT CODING FORM

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Gender	33.3321	1	33.332	11.669	.001
Residual	1022.568	358	2.856		
Total	1055.900	359			

H22: There is no significant difference in the quantity and quality of teacher negative praise to female and male students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 2.828 at the 0.094 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, accepted. TABLE 29 indicates that female students received a mean score of 1.05 and male students received a higher mean score of 1.12. TABLE 30 shows that there is no significant difference in the negative quantity and quality of teacher praise to male and female students.

TABLE 29

MEAN FOR QUANTITY AND QUALITY OF NEGATIVE PRAISE AND GENDER

Variable	N	Mean
Female	175	1.05
Male	185	1.12

TABLE 30

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NEGATIVE PRAISE AND GENDER

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Gender	0.482	1	0.482	2.828	0.094
Residual	61.018	358	0.170		
Total	61.500	359			

H23: There is no significant difference in teacher positive proximity for African American and for white students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 4.151 at the 0.042 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, rejected. TABLE 31 indicates that the positive proximity mean score for African American students was 1.40 and for white students was 1.60. TABLE 32 shows that there is a significant difference in teacher positive proximity for African American and white students which means that teachers tended to stand near white students more often than they stood near African American students.

TABLE 31

MEAN FOR POSITIVE PROXIMITY AND RACE

Variable	N	Mean
African American	181	1.40
White	179	1.60

TABLE 32

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR POSITIVE PROXIMITY AND RACE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Race	3.599	1	3.599	4.151	0.042
Residual	310.398	358	0.867		
Total	313.997	359			

H24: There is no significant difference in teacher negative proximity for African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 0.000 at the 0.994 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, accepted. TABLE 33 shows that the mean score for negative proximity for African American students was 1.01 and for white students was 1.01. TABLE 34 shows that there is no significant difference in teacher negative proximity for African American and white

students. This finding means that teacher negative proximity was equally displayed toward white and African American students.

TABLE 33

MEAN FOR NEGATIVE PROXIMITY AND RACE

Variable	N	Mean
African American	181	1.01
White	179	1.01

TABLE 34

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NEGATIVE PROXIMITY AND RACE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Race	0.000	1	0.000	0.000	0.994
Residual	1.989	358	0.006		
Total	1.989	359			

H25: There is no significant difference in teacher positive proximity for female and male students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 5.687 at the 0.018 level of significance. Hypothesis is,

therefore, rejected. TABLE 35 indicates that the mean score for female students was 1.38 and the mean score for male students was 1.61. TABLE 36 shows that there is a significant difference in teacher positive proximity for male and female students which means that teachers had positive proximity with male students significantly more than with female students.

TABLE 35

MEAN FOR POSITIVE PROXIMITY AND GENDER

Variable	N	Mean
Female	175	1.38
Male	185	1.61

TABLE 36

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR POSITIVE PROXIMITY AND GENDER

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Gender	4.910	1	4.910	5.687	0.018
Residual	1.989	358	0.000		
Total	1.989	359			

H26: There is no significant difference in teacher negative proximity for female and male students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance

yielded an f value of 0.002 at the 0.969 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, accepted. TABLE 37 indicates that the mean negative proximity score for female students was 1.01 and the mean negative proximity score for male students was 1.01. TABLE 38 shows that there is no significant difference in teacher negative proximity for male and female students which means that teachers displayed negative proximity equally toward male and female students.

TABLE 37

MEAN FOR NEGATIVE PROXIMITY AND GENDER

Variable	N	Mean
Female	175	1.01
Male	185	1.01

TABLE 38

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NEGATIVE PROXIMITY AND GENDER

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Gender	0.000	1	0.000	0.002	0.969
Residual	1.989	358	0.006		
Total	1.989	359			

H27: There is no significant difference in teacher-observed equity behaviors toward African American and white students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 9.455 at the 0.002 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, rejected. TABLE 39 indicates that the mean score for African American students was 1.44 and the mean score for white students was 2.58. Table 40 shows that there is a significant difference in teacher observed equity behaviors (TESA) toward African American and white students which means that white students received significantly more positive response opportunities, praise and proximity than African American students.

TABLE 39

TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR AND RACE

Variable	N	Mean
African American	181	1.44
White	179	2.58

TABLE 40

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR AND RACE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Race	117.894	1	117.894	9.455	0.002
Residual	4464.095	358	12.470		
Total	4581.989	359			

H28. There is no significant difference in teacher observed equity behaviors toward female and male students as measured by the TESA coding scale. Analysis of Variance yielded an f value of 20.669 at the 0.000 level of significance. Hypothesis is, therefore, rejected. TABLE 41 indicates that female students received a mean score of 1.15 and male students received a mean score of 2.82. TABLE 42 shows that there is a significant difference in teacher-observed equity behaviors toward male and female students which means that teachers directed more positive response opportunities, praise and feedback toward male students than toward female students.

TABLE 41

MEANS FOR TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR AND GENDER

Variable	N	Mean
Female	175	1.15
Male	185	2.82

TABLE 42

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR AND GENDER

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p<.05
Gender	250.100	1	250.100	20.669	0.000
Residual	4381.888	358	12.100		
Total	4581.989	359			

For analysis of data for hypotheses 15-28 by group, race and gender, see APPENDICES E-R.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the equity values of principals and teachers, to determine if a relationship existed between teacher perception of principal equity values and principal perception of

their own equity values, to determine if a relationship existed between principal and teacher equity values and teacher behaviors in the classroom, and to determine if a relationship existed between teacher perception of principal values and teacher behavior in the classroom.

Additionally, the study investigated the positive and negative response opportunities, praise and proximity behaviors that teachers exhibited when instructing female, male, African American and white students.

The study found that there were significant relationships for hypotheses 9 and 10 and significant differences for hypotheses 15, 16, 17, 20, 21, 23, 25, 27, and 28. Further, the study found that the mean for teacher self-reported scores was high (4.7), the mean score for teacher perceptions of principals as a group was high (4.6), and the mean for principal self-reported scores was high (4.6); nevertheless, the findings did not reveal a relationship among the variables.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter synthesizes the research conducted. The first section is a report of the findings and conclusion of the study. The second section examines what the implications are for school effectiveness. The final section offers recommendations for school effectiveness based on the findings of the research.

Findings and Conclusions

The findings in this study were reported in terms of teacher and principal equity values (general and student-specific values), teacher perceptions of principal equity values and teacher-observed behavior in the classroom.

Teacher Equity Values

Teachers were asked to rate themselves in the areas of general values and student-specific values. General values included equity of attitude, language, generalizations about gender and race, facts about gender and race, comparisons of students based on race and gender, equal attention to students based on gender and race, freedom of expression of values by students based on gender and race,

modeling of non-biased behavior, and promoting a wide range of careers for both gender and ethnic groups.

Teachers scored modeling of non-biased behavior the lowest. On a five-point scale, the mean score for modeling of non-biased behavior was 4.0. The teachers scored giving equal attention to all students the highest (4.8).

Findings of the research indicated that in actual classroom situations, teachers tended to interact with male students more than with female students and with white students more than with African American students; therefore, teacher behavior in the classroom did not substantiate teacher-reported equity of attention.

The student-specific values included equal opportunities in student activities, recognition of achievement for all students, academic expectations for all students, expression of emotions for all students, expectation of non-biased student behavior, and student discipline behavioral expectations. Teachers scored academic expectations for all students highest and recommending of school activities to all students lowest. When teachers were observed in the classrooms, the researcher found that academic expectations were not equitable for all students in the class and were not consistent with what teachers reported that they valued.

Principals' Equity Values

The researcher used the same categories of equity to assess principal equity values as were used to assess teacher equity values. On a five-point scale, principals' lowest mean score was 4.00. This low score was on the questionnaire item that

addressed attitude and taking the idea of equity seriously. The highest score was promoting a wide range of career choices, interests, and roles for all students and teachers.

In the category of student-specific values, principals rated the item on recommending school activities to different groups lowest and scored student discipline/ behavioral expectations highest. On a five-point scale, the mean score for discipline was 5. Relationships between teachers and principals were significant in terms of teacher perceptions of principals and teacher perception of themselves. There were no significant relationships between teacher equity values or teacher behaviors in the classroom and principal-reported equity.

Teachers' Perceptions of Principals

Using the same questionnaire items that teachers and principals used to rate their equity values, teachers were asked to score their perceptions of their principals' equity values. The mean score for the general values category was 4.6. The highest rating was 4.9, using non-biased language. The lowest mean score was 4.5, modeling non-biased behavior (4.6).

In the category of student-specific values, teachers rated principals highest on recognition of achievement (4.8) and lowest on both equal opportunity of student achievement and non-biased student behavior.

The only hypotheses that revealed significant relationships were hypothesis 9, there is no significant relationship between teacher student-specific values and

teacher scores of their perceptions of principal student-specific values as measured by the TSENB scale; and hypothesis 10, there is no significant relationship between teacher-perceived principal equity values and teacher-reported equity values as measured by the TSENB scale.

The findings from hypotheses 9 and 10 indicate that teacher perception of principal student-specific values has some relationship to teacher student-specific values for students and that teacher perception of principal equity values has some relationship to teacher-reported equity values.

The findings further revealed that both teachers and principals reported high mean scores on the questionnaire. Using a scale of 1, rarely; 2, sometimes; 3, often; 4, most times; and 5, almost always, principals had a mean score of 4.5; teachers had a mean score of 4.65 and teachers had a mean score of 4.65 on their reported perceptions of principal equity values. The mean score of teachers indicated that as a group, teachers had high equity values, and the mean score of principals indicated that as a group, principals had high equity values; however, when individual teachers were matched with their building administrators, there was no significant relationship between and among teachers and their building administrators. The principal scores and their teacher scores were independent of each other.

Teachers' Observed Behavior in the Classroom

Teachers were observed on three teaching behaviors in the classroom, response, praise, and proximity. The findings indicated that teachers engaged in

significantly more interaction with male than with female students and with white than with African American students. White male students received more interaction than any of the other three groups. African American males received the second highest teacher interaction and African American females received the least amount of teacher interaction in the classroom.

When the researcher analyzed the findings, the researcher found the following. Positive response opportunities were provided for white students more than for African American students (hypothesis 15). Negative response opportunities were shown toward African American students more than toward white students (hypothesis 16). Positive response was provided for male more than for female students (hypothesis 17). Negative praise (criticism) was given to African American more than to white students (hypothesis 20). Positive praise was given to male students more than to female students (hypothesis 21). Positive proximity was directed more toward white students than toward African American students (hypothesis 23). Positive proximity was directed more toward male students than female students (hypothesis 25). More interaction (response opportunities, praise and proximity) was directed toward white students than African American students and toward male students than female students (hypothesis 27, 28).

Implications

Teacher Student-specific Values and Teacher Perception of Principal Student-specific Values

Teacher student-specific values and teacher perception of principal student - specific values were significantly related. This relationship may be attributed to the fact that the teachers in the study were recommended by their local principals to teach summer school. When selecting or recommending staff, principals tend to recommend staff members whose values fit well with the values of the principal and the school. Also, the findings may be attributed to the fact that the teachers in the study were selected for the program because of their perceived professionalism, their commitment to their work, their experience, and their desire to work in a summer program containing a multicultural population.

Teacher Equity Values and Teacher-Perception of Principal Equity Values

Teacher perception of principal equity values and teacher equity values were significantly related. This finding is significant because it provides additional evidence that teacher perception of principal equity values has some relationship to teachers' values.

This study has important implications for summer and regular program improvement and for personnel hiring. The findings support many of the correlates of the research on effective schools, particularly those that emphasize the importance of strong instructional leadership and high expectations for student achievement.

Since teachers who teach in the summer program are selected from teachers who teach in the regular school program, regular school principals have the greatest opportunity for affecting teacher equity values and teacher classroom behaviors. Therefore, principals must have and must communicate clear equity values to teachers.

Teacher Behaviors in the Classroom and Gender and Race

Teacher expectations, measured in the study by teacher interactions in the classroom, revealed that teacher interactions were not equitably distributed toward African American, white, male, and female students. The findings of this study substantiated previous research which indicated that the white male student received more total and more positive teacher interaction than any other group in the classroom and that male students received more teacher interaction than female students.

An interesting finding of this study was that contrary to research conducted by Irvine (1990) and others, the most neglected group of students in this study of African American females, African American males, white females, and white males was not white females, but rather African American females. The finding may be attributed to the fact that much attention has been devoted to the plight of the African American male and little research has been conducted to investigate the impact of schooling on African American females. Recent literature has suggested that the "aggressiveness and ambitiousness" of the African American female has

limited the opportunities for African American males to succeed and excel. Such literature may suggest the reason for the findings; African American females may have subconsciously acquiesced.

Some studies have suggested that because African American males are perceived as having aggressive behavior, teachers tend to interact frequently with them for management and discipline control rather than for academic engagement. This study seems to substantiate the research because African American males received more negative interaction than any other group in the study. While the quantity of teacher interaction was higher for African American males than for African American females and white females, the quality of teacher interaction was not stronger for African American males.

Most teachers in the study rated principals (as a group) high in equity values and principals as a group rated themselves high in equity values; therefore, it seems apparent that teachers are aware that most principals have equity expectations. The findings seem to imply that there are other variables that influence the behavior of teachers. Other intervening variables may include teacher background, teacher experience, teaching style, teacher preconceived expectations of students, and teacher perception of the teacher's role in the classroom (disciplinarian, dispenser of knowledge, paper managers, or facilitator of learning.)

The finding also indicates that what teachers report and what teachers do in terms of student equity are not the same.

Recommendations

As referenced in the limitations earlier, this study was conducted in a summer school program. The researcher suggests using this study as a foundation for investigating the applicability of the recommendations to the regular school setting.

The research findings of this study indicate a need for leaders and teachers to adapt a broader perspective of student equity. Based on this belief, the researcher makes the following recommendations.

1. Principals should model behavior which reinforces equity values and beliefs through daily routines, offering staff development courses that heighten teacher awareness of cultural diversity, and providing mentoring and training to help teachers learn differentiated strategies and interactions for enhancing the strengths of African American and female students.

2. Systemwide personnel responsible for curriculum development and textbook adoption should ensure that instruction and curriculum for regular and summer school programs infuse female and Afro-centric contributions.

3. Personnel responsible for supervising summer school and other such programs must monitor teacher equity and effectiveness in the classroom.

4. Administrators should monitor summer school and regular school classroom instruction frequently and should provide immediate feedback about the observation. Classroom visitations should go beyond observing for just the course content; observations should include analyzing teacher interactions with all students to ensure that there is no conscious nor

unconscious "hidden curriculum " that handicaps student chances of equal access to knowledge.

5. Systemwide personnel should offer programs like Cooperative Learning, Teacher Expectation and Student Achievement, Learning Styles and World of Difference. These programs have proven to be successful for students who do not learn from the traditional, didactic classrooms strategies. Such programs should be available to teachers in order to enhance teacher awareness and to increase the repertoire of teaching strategies. Kerman, Kimbrall and Martin (1980), Brophy and Good (1974), Bouie (1985), and Irvine (1990) have researched the impacts of teacher expectation on students in the classroom; their findings clearly indicate that teachers should be trained to use strategies that are effective for minority students.

6. Personnel managers should give greater attention to teacher placement in schools and summer programs and should provide for regular and systematic assessment of principal/teacher effectiveness. This assessment should include teacher and student formal and informal feedback about principal/teacher effectiveness.

Further Study

Because of the limitations cited in Chapter 3, the researcher recommends that further study be conducted to analyze how teacher or principal race would affect the findings of this study and to study the impact of a larger sample of teachers and principals in a regular school settings. Through further study a researcher may be

able to determine whether the African American female receives fewer teacher interactions in the regular classroom than other cultural groups; whether teacher-reported equity values match teacher-observed behavior in the regular classroom, and whether administrator perception of himself/herself, teacher perception of administrator and teacher behaviors in the regular classroom differ according to the gender or race of the students.

Summary

With the current emphasis on reform, practitioners must be careful to ensure that reform efforts are congruent with school and program goals, school culture and student needs. This research study can serve to enhance awareness of the inequities that exist in classrooms and schools. Additionally, the study can be made available as research for developing guidelines for teacher and principal equity training and assessment.

APPENDIX A

Teacher Self-Evaluation of Non-Biased Behavior Questionnaire

1.	My school code is	A. 508 B. 519 C. 522 D. 525 E. none of these
2.	My school code is	A. 527 B. 529 C. 533 D. 535 E. none of these
3.	My school code is	A. 546 B. 549 C. 555 D. 557 E. none of these
4.	My school code is	A. 544 B. 595 C. 568 D. 625 E. none of these
5.	My school code is	A. 565 B. 567 C. 570 D. 573 E. none of these
6.	My school code is	A. 576 B. 580 C. 581 D. 585 E. 593
7.	The number of years I have been teaching is	A. 1-5 B. 6-10 C. 11-15 D. 16-25 E. 26+
8.	My gender is	A. Female B. Male
9.	My race is	A. Black B. White C. Other
10.	My subject area is	A. Computer B. English C. Mathematics D. Reading E. Science
11.	The number of years I have been assigned to my last principal is	A. 1-5 B. 6-10 C. 11-15 D. 16-25 E. 26+
12.	The number or years I have been assigned to my last school is	A. 1-5 B. 6-10 C. 11-15 D. 16-25 E. 26+

SCHOOL CODES

Avondale	508	Lakeside	555	SWDeKalb	576
Cedar Grove	519	Lithonia	557	Stn. Mtn.	580
Chamblee	522	McNair Jr.	544	Stn. Mtn. II	581
Clarkston	525	McNair Sr.	595	Towers	585
Columbia	527	Miller Grove	568	Tucker	593
Cross Keys	529	Open Campus	625		
Druid Hills	533	Peachtree	565		
Dunwoody	535	Redan	567		
DeK. Alt.	546	Sequoyah	470		
Henderson	549	Shamrock	573		

Rate your behavior as classroom teacher. Rate the behaviors on a scale A (rarely) to E (almost always).

		Teacher's Behavior (Teacher General Values)
A B C D E	13.	Attitude. I take the idea of equality seriously; for example, I do not put down males or females or joke about their abilities, roles, or ethnic backgrounds.
A B C D E	14	Language. I use non-biased language; for example, I do not refer to all doctors or lawyers as "he," or all nurses or secretaries as "she."
A B C D E	15.	Generalizations. I avoid generalizations that refer to gender or race.
A B C D E	16.	Facts. I use accurate factual knowledge about the current economic and legal status of women and men of all races.
A B C D E	17.	Comparisons. I avoid comparisons of teachers or students based on gender; for example, I would not say "women cannot discipline as well as men," or "the girls are working harder than the boys."
A B C D E	18.	Equal Attention. I give equal attention to teachers and students of both sexes; for example, I do not show preference for one over the other by asking professional advice from only teachers of one sex or by giving the students of one sex more responsibility than those of the other sex.
A B C D E	19.	Values. I reinforce the expression of values from teachers and students so that both males and females can express assertiveness or gentleness.
A B C D E	20	Model. I act as a model of non-biased behavior by performing activities traditionally though to be done by the other sex; for example. if male, I offer coffee and refreshments at meetings; if female, I conduct maintenance inspections.
A B C D E	21.	Careers. I publicly acknowledge the appropriateness of a wide range of career choices, interests, and roles of both sexes and all ethnic groups.
		Teacher's Interactions With Others (Teacher Student-Specific Values)
A B C D E	22.	Student Activities - Equal Opportunity. I recommend all school activities to both boys and girls; I do not expect girls to have only typically feminine interests and boys only typically masculine interests.
A B C D E	23.	Recognition of Achievement. I give equal attention to the academic and extra-curricular achievements of both sexes; for example, I recognize the athletic achievements of both girls and boys.

A B C D E 24. Academic Expectations. I have the same expectations of academic achievement for boys as for girls; for example,I do not usually expect girls to excel in verbal skills and boys usually to excel in mathematics.

A B C D E 25. Expression of Emotions. I permit all children to show their emotions without regard to gender or culture so long as such behavior is within school rules.

A B C D E 26. Non-Biased Student Behavior. I require students of both sexes and all races to treat each other as equals; for example, I do not allow sexist or racist remarks by students continually to go unchallenged.

A B C D E 27. Behavioral Expectations-Student Discipline. I expect the same behavior from all students and enforce the discipline code without regard to sex or race; for example, I do not treat girls who are fighting differently than I would treat boys who are fighting.

Please rate your principal's behavior as soon leader in the categories listed below. Rate the behaviors on a scale of A (rarely) to E (almost always).

Administrator's Behavior (Administrator's General Values)

A B C D E 28. Attitude. My principal takes the idea of equality seriously; for example, he/she does not put down males or females or joke about their abilities, roles, or ethnic backgrounds.

A B C D E 29. Language. My principal uses non-biased language; for example, he/she does not refer to all doctors or lawyers as "he," or all nurses or secretaries as "she."

A B C D E 30. Generalizations. My principal avoids generalizations that refer to gender or race.

A B C D E 31. Facts. My principal uses accurate factual knowledge about the current economic and legal status of women and men of all races.

A B C D E 32. Comparisons. My principal avoids comparisons of teachers or students based on gender; for example, he/she would not say "women cannot discipline as well as men," or "the girls are working harder than the boys."

A B C D E 33. Equal Attention. My principal gives equal attention to teachers and students of both sexes; for example, she/he does not show preference for one over the other by asking professional advice from only teachers of one sex or by giving the students of one sex more responsibility than those of the other sex.

A B C D E 34. Values. My principal reinforces the expression of values from teachers and students so that both males and females can express assertiveness or gentleness.

A B C D E 35. Model. My principal acts as a model of non-biased behavior by performing activities traditionally though to be done by the other sex; for example. if male, she/he offers coffee and refreshments at meetings; if female, he/she conducts maintenance inspections.

A B C D E 36. Careers. My principal publicly acknowledges the appropriateness of a wide range of career choices, interests, and roles of both sexes and all ethnic groups.

Administrator's Interactions With Others (Administrator's Student-Specific Values)

A B C D E 37. Student Activities - Equal Opportunity. My principal recommends all school activities to both boys and girls; he/she does not expect girls to have only typically feminine interests and boys only typically masculine interests.

A B C D E 38. Recognition of Achievement. My principal gives equal attention to the academic and extra-curricular achievements of both sexes; for example, she/he recognizes the athletic achievements of both girls and boys.

A B C D E 39. Academic Expectations. My principal has the same expectations of academic achievement for boys as for girls; for example, he/she does not usually expect girls to excel in verbal skills and boys usually to excel in mathematics.

A B C D E 40. Expression of Emotions. My principal permit all children to show their emotions without regard to gender or culture so long as such behavior is within school rules.

A B C D E 41. Non-Biased Student Behavior. My principal requires students of both sexes and all races to treat each other as equals; for example, she/he does not allow sexist or racist remarks by students continually to go unchallenged.

A B C D E 42. Behavioral Expectations-Student Discipline. My principal expects the same behavior from all students and enforce the discipline code without regard to sex or race; for example, he/she does not treat girls who are fighting differently than she/he would treat boys who are fighting.

APPENDIX B

Administrator's Self-Evaluation of Equitable Behavior Questionnaire

For questions 1-4, please mark your school code and answer the other three questions E. none of these.

1.	My school code is	A. 508 D. 525	B. 519 E. None of these	C. 522
2.	My school code is	A. 527 D. 557	B. 529 E. None of these	C. 555
3.	My school code is	A. 568 D. 576	B. 565 E. None of these	C. 573
4.	My school code is	A. 580 D. 581	B. 593 E. None of these	C. 585
5.	The number of years I have been principal	A.1-5 D. 16-20	B. 6-10 E. 21+	C. 11-15
6.	My gender is	A. Female	B. Male	
7.	My race is	A. Black	B. White	C. Other
8.	My school is	A. Type I	B. Type II	C. Type III
9.	Number of years I have been in education is	A. 1-5 D. 16-20	B. 6-10 E. 21+	C. 11-15
10.	Number or years assigned I have been principal in my last school is	A. 1-5 D. 21-25	B. 6-10 E. 26+	C. 11-15

School Codes

508	Avondale High	580	Stone Mountain High
519	Cedar Grove High School	593	Tucker
522	Chamblee	585	Towers
527	Columbia High	581	Stone Mountain Ii
529	Cross Keys		
555	Lakeside		
557	Lithonia		
568	Miller Grove		

Please rate your behavior as administrator in the categories listed below. Rate the behaviors on a scale of A(rarely) to E(almost always).

Administrator's Behavior

A B C D E 11. Attitude. I take the idea of equality seriously; for example, I do not put down males or females or joke about their abilities, roles, or ethnic backgrounds.

A B C D E 12. Language. I use non-biased language; for example, I do not refer to all doctors or lawyers as "he," or all nurses or secretaries as "she."

A B C D E 13. Generalizations. I avoid generalizations that refer to gender or race.

A B C D E 14. Facts. I use accurate factual knowledge about the current economic and legal status of women and men of all races.

A B C D E 15. Comparisons. I avoid comparisons of teachers or students based on gender; for example, I would not say "women cannot discipline as well as men," or "the girls are working harder than the boys."

A B C D E 16. Equal Attention. I give equal attention to teachers and students of both sexes; for example, I do not show preference for one over the other by asking professional advice from only teachers of one sex or by giving the students of one sex more responsibility than those of the other sex.

A B C D E 17. Values. I reinforce the expression of values from teachers and students so that both males and females can express assertiveness or gentleness.

A B C D E 18. Model. I act as a model of non-biased behavior by performing activities traditionally though to be done by the other sex; for example. if male, I offer coffee and refreshments at meetings; if female, I conduct maintenance inspections.

A B C D E 19. Careers. I publicly acknowledge the appropriateness of a wide range of career choices, interests, and roles of both sexes and all ethnic groups.

Administrator's Interactions With Others

A B C D E 20. Student Activities - Equal Opportunity. I recommend all school activities to both boys and girls; I do not expect girls to have only typically feminine interests and boys only typically masculine interests.

A B C D E 21. Recognition of Achievement. I give equal attention to the academic and extra-curricular achievements of both sexes; for example, I recognize the athletic achievements of both girls and boys.

A B C D E 22. Academic Expectations. I have the same expectations of academic achievement for boys as for girls; for example,I do not usually expect girls to excel in verbal skills and boys usually to excel in mathematics.

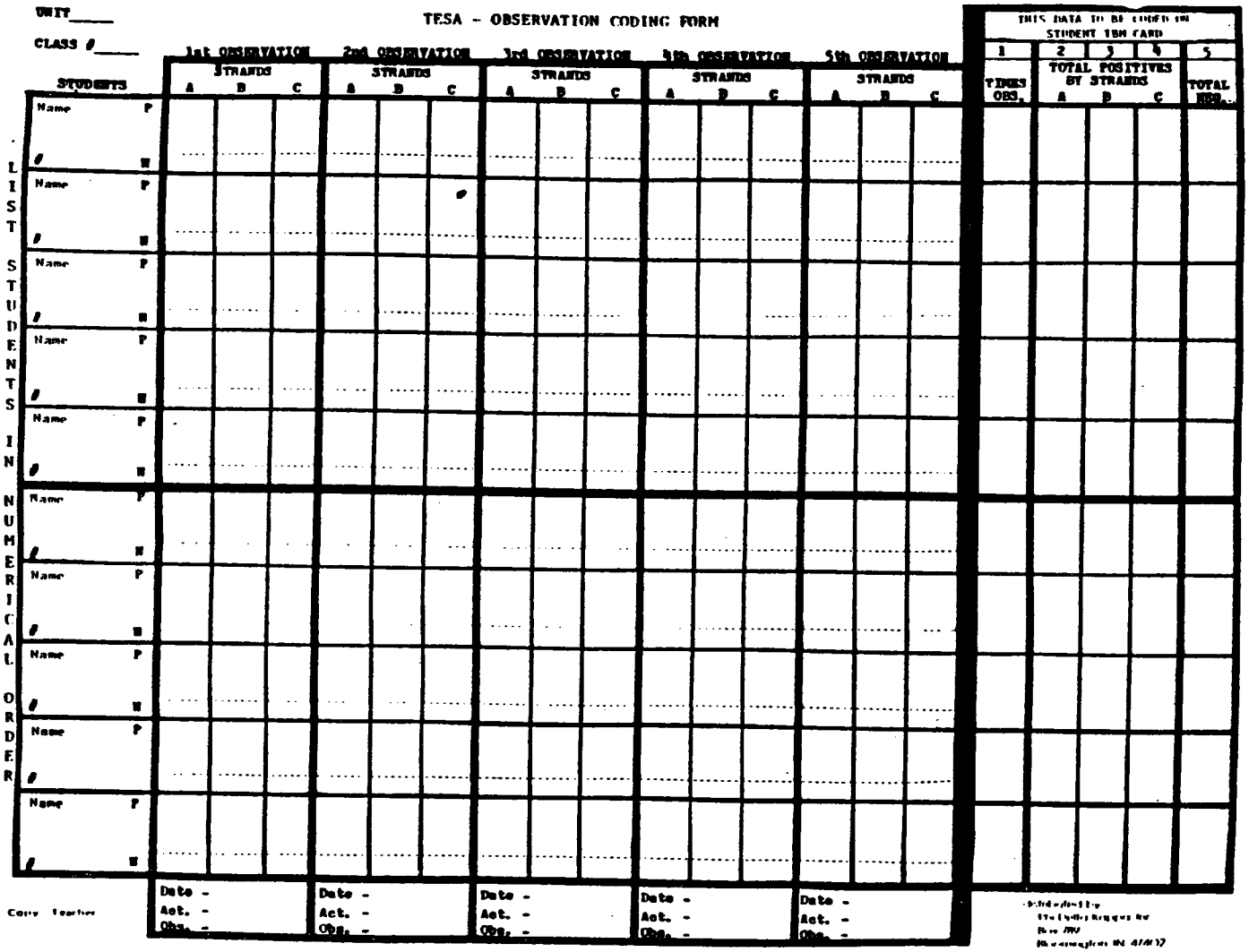
A B C D E 23. Expression of Emotions. I permit all children to show their emotions without regard to gender or culture so long as such behavior is within school rules.

OVER

A B C D E 24. Non-Biased Student Behavior. I require students of both sexes and all races to treat each other as equals; for example, I do not allow sexist or racist remarks by students continually to go unchallenged.

A B C D E 25. Behavioral Expectations-Student Discipline. I expect the same behavior from all students and enforce the discipline code without regard to sex or race; for example, I do not treat girls who are fighting differently than I would treat boys who are fighting.

APPENDIX C
Teacher Expectation and Student Achievement Coding Form



UNIT____

CLASS #____

TESA - OBSERVATION CODING FORM

LIST STUDENTS IN NUMERICAL ORDER

STUDENTS	1st OBSERVATION STRANDS A B C	2nd OBSERVATION STRANDS A B C	3rd OBSERVATION STRANDS A B C	4th OBSERVATION STRANDS A B C	5th OBSERVATION STRANDS A B C
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
Name P # W					
	Date - Act. - Obs. -	Date - Act. - Obs. -	Date - Act. - Obs. -	Date - Act. - Obs. -	Date - Act. - Obs. -

THIS DATA TO BE CODED ON STUDENT IBM CARD

1	2	3	4	5
TIMES OBS.	TOTAL POSITIVES BY STRANDS A	B	C	TOTAL RES.

Copy Teacher

APPENDIX D

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT MATRIX

	TPRIN GEN	PS SPECIF	TPP SPEC	PBQV	TPP BQV	P GEN	T GEN	S SPECIF	TBQV	TO BEHAVE
TPRIN GEN	1.000 (30) p=.	-.1040 (30) p=.292	.5709 (30) p=.000	-.0004 (30) p=.499	.9145 (30) p=.000	.0345 (30) p=.428	-.0487 (30) p=.399	.6051 (30) p=.000	.4267 (30) p=.009	.2444 (30) p=.096
PS SPECIF	-.1040 (30) P=.292	1.000 (30) p=.	.1866 (30) p=.162	.7189 (30) p=.000	.0261 (30) p=.445	.5362 (30) p=.001	-.0251 (30) p=.448	-.0200 (30) p=.458	-.0347 (30) p=.428	-.0546 (30) p=.387
TPP SPEC	.5709 (30) p=.000	.1866 (30) p=.162	1.000 (30) p=.	.2089 (30) p=.134	.8543 (30) p=.000	.1908 (30) p=.156	-.1153 (30) p=.272	.6665 (30) p=.000	.4223 (30) p=.010	.0796 (30) p=.338
PBQV	-.0004 (30) p=.499	.7189 (30) p-.000	.2089 (30) p=.134	1.000 (30) p=.	.1027 (30) p=.295	.9722 (30) p=.000	.1663 (30) p=.190	.1171 (30) p=.269	.2184 (30) p=.123	-.0628 (30) p=.371
TPP BQV	.9145 (30) p=.000	.0261 (30) p=.445	.8543 (30) p=.000	.1027 (30) p=.295	1.0000 (30) p=.	.1159 (30) p-.271	-.0877 (30) p=.322	.7116 (30) p=.000	.4783 (30) p=.004	.1940 (30) p=.152
P GEN	.0345 (30) p=.428	.5362 (30) p=.001	.1908 (30) p=.156	.9722 (30) P=.000	.1159 (30) p=.271	1.0000 (30) p=.	.2104 (30) p=.132	.1490 (30) p=.216	.2769 (30) p=.069	-.0579 (30) p=.381
T GEN	-.0487 (30) p=.399	-.0251 (30) p=.448	-.1153 (30) p=.272	.1663 (30) p=.190	-.0877 (30) p=.322	.2104 (30) p=.132	1.0000 (30) p=.	-.1569 (30) p=.204	.6524 (30) p=.000	.0781 (30) p=.341
TS SPECIF	.6051 (30) p=.000	-.0200 (30) p=.458	.6665 (30) p=.000	.1171 (30) p=.269	.7116 (30) p=.000	.1490 (30) p=.216	-.1569 (30) p=.204	1.0000 (30) p=.	.6462 (30) p=.000	-.1952 (30) p=.151
TBQV	.4267 (30) p=.009	-.0347 (30) p=.428	.4223 (30) p=.010	.2184 (30) p=.123	.4783 (30) p=.004	.2769 (30) p=.069	.6524 (30) p=.000	.6462 (30) p=.000	1.000 (30) p=.	-.0894 (30) p=.319
TO BEHAVE	.2444 (30) p=.096	-.0546 (30) p=.387	.0796 (30) p=.338	-.0628 (30) p=.371	.1940 (30) p=.152	-.0579 (30) p=.381	.0781 (30) p=.341	-.1952 (30) p=.151	-.0894 (30) p=.319	1.0000 (30) p=.

APPENDIX E

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

POSITIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND TEACHER NUMBER AND RACE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	399.837	18	22.213	5.247	0.000
TNUM	372.650	17	21.921	5.178	0.000
RACE	24.456	1	24.456	5.777	0.017
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	105.102	17	6.182	1.460	0.107
TNUM RACE	105.102	17	6.182	1.460	0.107
EXPLAINED	504.939	35	14.427	3.408	0.000
RESIDUAL	1371.592	324	4.233		
TOTAL	1876.531	359	5.227		

APPENDIX F

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

NEGATIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND TEACHER NUMBER AND RACE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	0.700	18	0.039	1.910	0.015
TNUM	0.601	17	0.035	1.737	0.035
RACE	0.100	1	0.100	4.923	0.027
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	0.600	17	0.035	1.732	0.036
TNUM RACE	0.600	17	0.035	1.732	0.036
EXPLAINED	1.300	35	0.037	1.823	0.004
RESIDUAL	6.600	324	0.020		
TOTAL	7.900	359	0.022		

APPENDIX G

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

POSITIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND TEACHER NUMBER AND GENDER

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	467.661	18	25.981	6.518	0.000
TNUM	391.646	17	23.038	5.780	0.000
GENDER	92.281		92.281	23.150	0.000
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	117.357	17	6.903	1.732	0.036
TNUM RACE	117.357	17	6.903	1.732	0.036
EXPLAINED	585.018	35	16.715	4.193	0.000
RESIDUAL	1291.512	324	3.986		
TOTAL	1876.531	359	5.227		

APPENDIX H

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

NEGATIVE RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES AND TEACHER NUMBER AND GENDER

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	0.636	18	0.035	1.629	0.052
TNUM	0.596	17	0.035	1.614	0.059
GENDER	0.036	1	0.036	1.678	0.196
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	0.229	17	0.013	0.621	0.875
TNUM GENDER	0.229	17	0.013	0.621	0.875
EXPLAINED	0.866	35	0.025	1.139	0.276
RESIDUAL	7.034	324	0.022		
TOTAL	7.900	359	0.022		

APPENDIX I

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

POSITIVE PRAISE AND TEACHER NUMBER AND RACE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	231.992	18	12.888	5.520	0.000
TNUM	225.241	17	13.249	5.675	0.000
RACE	5.792	1	5.792	2.481	0.116
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	67.474	17	3.969	1.700	0.041
TNUM RACE	67.474	17	3.969	1.700	0.041
EXPLAINED	299.466	35	8.556	3.665	0.000
RESIDUAL	756.434	324	2.335		
TOTAL	1055.900	359	2.941		

APPENDIX J

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

NEGATIVE PRAISE AND TEACHER NUMBER AND RACE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	9.913	18	0.551	3.612	0.000
TNUM	9.217	17	0.542	3.556	0.000
RACE	0.713	1	0.713	4.677	0.031
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	2.187	17	0.129	0.844	0.642
TNUM RACE	2.187	17	0.129	0.844	0.642
EXPLAINED	12.100	35	0.346	2.267	0.000
RESIDUAL	49.400	324	0.152		
TOTAL	61.500	359	0.171		

APPENDIX K

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

NEGATIVE PRAISE AND TEACHER NUMBER AND GENDER

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	9.653	18	0.536	3.650	0.000
TNUM	9.171	17	0.539	3.672	0.000
GENDER	0.453	1	0.453	3.086	0.080
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	4.248	17	0.250	1.701	0.041
TNUM GENDER	4.248	17	0.250	1.701	0.041
EXPLAINED	13.901	35	0.397	2.703	0.000
RESIDUAL	47.599	324	0.147		
TOTAL	61.500	359	0.171		

APPENDIX L

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

POSITIVE PRAISE AND TEACHER NUMBER AND GENDER

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	264.477	18	14.693	6.585	0.000
TNUM	231.145	17	13.597	6.094	0.000
GENDER	38.277	1	38.277	17.154	0.000
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	68.473	17	4.028	1.805	0.026
TNUM GENDER	68.473	17	4.028	1.805	0.026
EXPLAINED	332.949	35	9.513	4.263	0.000
RESIDUAL	722.951	324	2.231		
TOTAL	1055.900	359	2.941		

APPENDIX M

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

NEGATIVE PROXIMITY AND TEACHER NUMBER AND RACE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	0.089	18	0.005	0.889	0.593
TNUM	0.089	17	0.005	0.941	0.526
RACE	0.000	1	0.000	0.000	1.000
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	0.100	17	0.006	1.059	0.394
TNUM RACE	0.100	17	0.006	1.059	0.394
EXPLAINED	0.189	35	0.005	0.971	0.519
RESIDUAL	1.800	324	0.006		
TOTAL	1.989	359	0.006		

APPENDIX N

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

POSITIVE PROXIMITY AND TEACHER NUMBER AND GENDER

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	145.113	18	8.062	17.798	0.000
TNUM	140.203	17	8.241	18.207	0.000
GENDER	6.666	1	6.666	14.716	0.000
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	22.121	17	1.301	2.873	0.000
TNUM GENDER	22.121	17	1.301	2.873	0.000
EXPLAINED	167.234	35	4.778	10.548	0.000
RESIDUAL	146.764	324	0.453		
TOTAL	313.997	359	0.875		

APPENDIX O

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

NEGATIVE PROXIMITY AND TEACHER NUMBER AND GENDER

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	0.089	18	0.005	0.895	0.585
TNUM	0.089	17	0.005	0.947	0.518
RACE	0.000	1	0.000	0.005	0.943
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	0.111	17	0.009	1.183	0.276
TNUM GENDER	0.111	17	0.009	1.183	0.276
EXPLAINED	0.200	35	0.006	1.035	0.419
RESIDUAL	1.789	324	0.006		
TOTAL	1.789	359	0.006		

APPENDIX P

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

POSITIVE PROXIMITY AND TEACHER NUMBER AND RACE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	141.630	18	7.868	16.660	0.000
TNUM	138.031	17	8.119	17.191	0.000
RACE	3.182	1	3.182	6.738	0.010
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	19.342	17	1.138	2.409	0.002
TNUM RACE	19.342	17	1.138	2.409	0.002
EXPLAINED	160.972	35	4.599	9.738	0.000
RESIDUAL	153.025	324	0.472		
TOTAL	313.997	359	0.875		

APPENDIX Q

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR AND TEACHER NUMBER AND RACE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	1294.317	18	71.906	7.547	0.000
TNUM	1176.423	17	69.201	7.263	0.000
RACE	106.028	1	106.038	11.128	0.001
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	200.671	17	11.804	1.239	0.232
TNUM RACE	200.671	17	11.804	1.239	0.232
EXPLAINED	1494.988	35	42.714	4.483	0.000
RESIDUAL	3087.001	324	9.528		
TOTAL	4581.989	359	12.763		

APPENDIX R

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

TEACHER-OBSERVED BEHAVIOR AND TEACHER NUMBER AND GENDER

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	1495.102	18	83.061	9.629	0.000
TNUM	1245.002	17	73.235	8.490	0.000
RACE	306.813	1	306.813	35.569	0.000
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	292.145	17	17.185	1.992	0.011
TNUM RACE	292.145	17	17.185	1.992	0.011
EXPLAINED	1787.247	35	51.064	5.920	0.000
RESIDUAL	2794.741	324	8.626		
TOTAL	4581.989	359	12.763		

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